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A COMPARISON OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADES[1]

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The marks or grades given by the elementary school, high school, college and university present many interesting problems from the point of view of educational psychology. For instance there is the question as to whether these marks are definitely related to the general mental traits, capacities and development of the individual who attains them. Then, there is the problem as to whether a given grade stands simply for a certain degree of static accomplishment or whether it is a measure of functioning capacity. We cannot speak with certainty upon these and many other points, but perhaps the most important step toward clearing them up will have been taken when a number of investigators have carefully worked over the data afforded by school marks.

For some purposes it may be satisfactory to gather the grades of a large number of pupils as they may rank in a single year, or semester. However, for more exact results it would certainly be better to gather material from the records of a smaller group whose work continues throughout a period of years.

Among the problems which may be investigated through students' records is that as to whether they maintain the same relative status or rank as they pass from one school to another. Professor W. F. Dearborn recently published a study of one phase of this problem in a monograph entitled "The Relative Standing of Pupils in the High School and in

[1]Communicated from the Department of Education, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

the University."[1] The primary object of our study is to make a similar investigation of the relationship between the elementary and high school grades.

The original plan was to obtain the elementary and high school records of at least 500 pupils and from these work out the correlations. Owing to the great amount of time necessary for getting together so much data and also to the differences which are sure to exist between schools, it was decided to use only that which could be obtained from the Iowa City school records.

Problem

The main problem in this study has been to determine to what extent pupils in the high school maintain the relative rank which they held in the elementary or common school. In other words are the pupils who would be classed as good, average, and poor in the elementary school, good, average and poor respectively when judged on the basis of their high school work?

Closely connected with this is the similar problem relative to the specific subjects of study. What is the relationship between a pupil's elementary school ranking, for example, in arithmetic and his high school ranking in mathematics? Furthermore between what subjects are the correlations especially high?

In dealing with the above problems various other related questions, such as the factor of sex, the skipping of grades and retardation in the elementary school and the failures in subjects of study in the high school, presented themselves. These questions were investigated as far as the data afforded by this limited group would admit.

Methods of the Investigation

It was necessary first to prepare a blank form suitable for purposes of gathering data.[2] These blanks were not used as a questionnaire but simply as means of helping the investigator to arrange the facts regarding each pupil in an orderly and convenient form. Not only were the marks carefully recorded in their appropriate columns but also facts regarding sickness, age and time of entrance were noted down.

In the data upon which this study is based only such rec-

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[1] *Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin*, No. 312; High School Series, No. 6, 1909.

[2] The gathering of the material for such a study from the usual school records is a very tedious task. A loose leaf school record system would, among many other advantages, make the data of grades much more accessible to those seeking light upon certain school problems.

ords are included as show the completion on the part of the individual of at least the last four years of the elementary school and the first two years of the high school. This standard is arbitrary but owing to the natural inequalities which exist in marks it seemed well not to take account of records that were less complete. Many of the Juniors and Seniors of 1909-10 as well as a number from the graduating classes of the three or four previous years were therefore within the scope of this study. The group available, moreover, would have been much larger were it not for the fact that the records of the Iowa city schools have been preserved for only the last twelve years.

These schools, in marking, employ the letters "E," "G," "M," "P," and "F" which stand for the terms "Excellent," "Good," "Medium," "Poor" and "Failure." The general numerical value connected with these letters is as follows: E 95–100, G 85–95, M 75–85, P 70–75 and F —. It was necessary for purposes of averaging the marks to adopt some one numerical value for each letter. The values adopted were: E 97.5, G 90, M 80, P 72.5, and F 60. The assigning of the value 60 to F is of course very arbitrary, but it is as fair for one as another, its only effect being to push upward to some extent those who have one or more F's.

In computing the individual's average elementary school grade all the marks received in his elementary school course were taken into account; similarly, all his high school marks were averaged to obtain his high school standing.

Some may object to including music, drawing and rhetoricals in such averages, but upon inspection of the group average grades in this subjects one sees no good reason why they should be omitted. (See table No. 1.)

This table not only presents the group average grades for the various elementary and high school subjects with the average decline between the elementary and high school grades, but there is another important detail of method. Many with whom the author has talked have expressed the opinion that the marking of the first four years in the elementary school is much less discriminative than that of the last four years. If this were true it would, perhaps, be better not to include the former marks in such an investigation. All but two of the individuals in our group furnished more or less complete records for these first four years in the elementary school. From this data we find that the difference between the average for the whole elementary course and for the first four years of the course is altogether negligible; and that the marking in the elementary school seems, therefore, to be practically uniformly discriminative.

TABLE No. 1

The Group Averages

No. of Students	The Group	Average Grade
106	The Elementary School	89.15
104	First four years of Elementary School	89.16
106	The High School	82.49
106	Decline between Ele. School and High School	6.66
	Elementary School Subjects	
106	Spelling	91.33
106	Reading	90.80
106	Writing	89.47
106	Arithmetic	87.57
106	Grammar and Language	88.37
106	Geography	89.32
105	History	89.46
83	Physiology	88.26
105	Rhetoricals	91.96
101	Manual Training	87.55
106	Music	87.00
106	Drawing	89.38
	High School Subjects	
106	English	83.39
106	Mathematics	80.51
106	History	84.20
100	Foreign Language	81.53
99	Science	79.94
28	Drawing	86.92

There are so many subjects of study in the high school that for purposes of correlation certain of them were combined under comprehensive headings. (See Table No. 1.) All the marks in English Literature and English Grammar were combined to make up the average mark in English. In like manner Algebra, Geometry and Arithmetic were combined under the head of Mathematics; History and Civics under the head of History; Latin and German under the head of Foreign Language; and Physiography, Physiology, Botany, Zoölogy, Chemistry and Physics under the caption of Science.

(1) The Correlations: (a) The correlation between the average elementary and high school grades was worked out according to the Pearson formula and also by the method of quartiles. (See Table No. 2 and Figures 1 to 4.) (b) The Pearson coefficients for most of the possible correlations between specific subjects were obtained. (See Table No. 2.) Several of the same correlations between specific subjects were worked out by the quartile method. (See Figures 3 to 18.) (c) Fourteen of the group attended the State Univer-

sity of Iowa. The relative elementary school, high school and university rankings of these students are presented in Table No. 3.

(2) The Sex Factor: For the relative standing of boys and girls in the various subjects, see Table No. 4. The Figures 32 and 33 and Table No. 5 present facts regarding the distribution according to sex in the average elementary and high school ranking and in various representative subjects of study.

(3) Rates of Progress: In Figures 34 to 38 and in Table No. 6 are presented facts regarding skipping of grades and retardation in the elementary school; the grades in which this skipping and retardation most frequently occur; failures in the high school; and other minor details.

General Explanation of the Correlations

Two methods of correlation have been used, the Pearson method and the method of quartiles. The Pearson coefficients of correlation, as Professor Thorndike says, are obtained simply, though with much arithmetical work. by the formula $r=\frac{\Sigma x \cdot y}{\eta \sigma_1 \sigma_2}$

Regarding the nature of this coefficient I take the liberty of quoting from Thorndike.[1] "It (the coefficient of correlation) has possible values from +100 per cent. through 0 to —100 per cent. A coefficient for correlation between two abilities of +100 per cent. means that the individual who is best in the group in one ability will be the best in the other; that if the individuals were ranged in order of excellence in the first ability and then in order of excellence in the second, the two rankings would be identical, that any one's station in the one will be identical with his station in the other. A coefficient of —100 per cent. would per contra mean that the best person in the one ability would be the worst in the other, that any degree of superiority in the one would go with an equal degree of inferiority in the other and *vice versa.* A coefficient of +62 per cent. would mean that (comparison being rendered fair here as always by reduction to the variabilities as units) any given station in the one trait would imply —62 hundredths of that station in the other." To illustrate let us take our own coefficients of correlation, +71, the coefficient found to exist between the average elementary and high school grades. This means, according to Thorndike's explanation, that any given station occupied by a pupil in the elementary school would imply 71 hundredths of that station in the high school distribution.

The method of quartiles, while much less exact, is useful

[1] *Educational Psychology*, page 26.

in that it presents in a very simple way the essential relations and enables one to follow the fluctuation of the individual. Figures 1 and 2, for example, show the use of the quartile method. Figure 1 presents the ranking of the group in the elementary school course. There were five individuals who had an average elementary grade of 95, two who had an average elementary grade of 94 and so on until we come to the one who had an average grade of 80. In figuring out the averages there was usually a decimal, as, for example, number 1's real average elementary grade was 95.92. This decimal of .92 being the largest in the 95 column we place it at the top. In like manner we place each decimal relative to the other, the lowest at the bottom, the highest at the top, and so on with each column of grades.[1] Then beginning at the top of the 95 column we number down until we come to 106. This gives each one his number according to his relative rank in the group. These numbers based upon the elementary school work are retained throughout all the other figures, "1," for instance, in the other figures is thus the individual who attained 1st rank in the elementary school.

Figure 1 is next divided as nearly as possible into quartiles or four equal parts. On account of the number 106, the division had to be into groups of 27, 26, 27, 26. The quartiles are numbered from the right side. Quartile No. 1 is left as nearly white as possible and contains those 27 who were ranked highest; No. 2 is hatched with lines from the upper right-hand corner to the lower left, and contains the next 26 in order of rank; No. 3 is hatched in the opposite manner from 2, and contains the next 27; and No. 4 is black and contains the poorest 26 of the group.

Figure 2 is constructed in essentially the same manner as Figure 1, only that in place of numbering the individuals according to their rank in the high school group we put down, as stated above, the number which the individual received in the elementray school ranking. The individual, for example, who is first or received 95 in the high school work was second in the elementary ranking. We therefore place the number "2" in the 95 column in Figure 2. In like manner we take account of each one, always keeping the square white, hatched or black as the case may be, in the upper figure.

We are in this way able to see how many of the numbers found in the first quartile of Figure 1 are found in the first quartile of Figure 2, or how the individuals in the first quartile of Figure 1 distribute themselves among the quartiles of Figure 2, or to put it in other words from the standpoint of

[1]This method is followed strictly in Figure 2.

Figure 2, we are able to see in what quartiles of Figure 1 the individuals are found who make up quartile No. 1 of Figure 2.

If all the white squares were to appear in the first quartile of Figure 2 and so on until we found all the black squares of Figure 1 in the fourth quartile of Figure 2, the correlation would be perfect according to the quartile method. This, however, is seldom the case. One may look for the correlations, then, by noting the prominence of white, hatching or black in a quartile, but a more satisfactory way of exhibiting it is demonstrated in Figures 3 and 4, for example. In Figure 3, using the average elementary school grades as a basis,[1] we find that of the 27 in the first quartile there are 18 who are found in the first quartile in the average high school grades, 7 who descend to the second high school quartile, 1 to the third, and 1 to the fourth. In a similar way we show the high school distribution of the individuals who make up

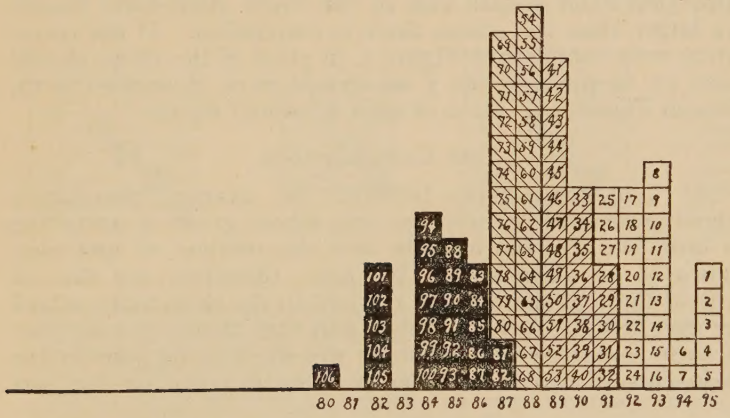

Fig. 1. The ranking of the group in their elementary school work. Quartiles numbering from right to left. The heavy lines indicate the quartile divisions.

each of the elementary school quartiles. The white-faced numbers which form a diagonal line in Figure 3 indicate where we shoud expect to find any existing correlation. If this number is greater than any other in its line, as in Figure 3, 18 is greater than 7, 1, or 1, there is shown to be correlation, while the white-faced number 7 in Figure 3 indicates almost no correlation, for the other numbers are as large and practically represent chance distribution.

The correlation by halves (see Figure 4) may be easily

[1]In such figures the caption at the left-hand side always indicates the grades which are used as the basis.

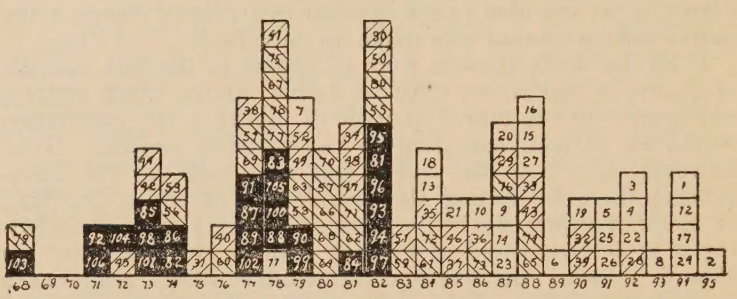

Fig. 2. The group according to the high school distribution.

worked out from Figure 3. The sum of the numbers in the four upper left-hand squares in Figure 3 is 38, of the upper right-hand squares it is 15 and so on. If the numbers in the upper left-hand square and in the lower right-hand square are larger than the others there is correlation. If the correlation were complete in Figure 3, in place of the 18 we should have 27, in place of the 7 we should have 26 and so forth, then in Figure 4 in place of each 38 would be 53.[1]

The Correlations

(a) The correlations between the average elementary school grade and the average high school grade is, according to both the Pearson formula and the method of quartiles, shown to be quite high.[2] We may, therefore, say that in general those pupils who are the best in the elementary school are also best in the high school, and that those who are poor in their elementary school work will likewise be poor in the high school.[3] No radical change is to be noted on the part

[1]It is possible to work out a coefficient of correlation from Figure 4, or the correlation by halves, as is shown by Mr. G. H. Mount of the University of Iowa in some unpublished manuscripts. The formula is $K=\frac{a-b}{n}$. To illustrate by Figure 4 $K=\frac{38-15}{53}$ or $\frac{76-30}{106}=.43$. The author knows of no relation between the coefficient thus obtained and the Pearson coefficient. It is obvious that the correlation so far as the quartile method is concerned could be perfect while the Pearson coefficient would be far from +1.00.

[2]Dearborn found that the Pearson coefficient of correlation between the average high school standing and the university standing was about +.80. Our coefficient of +.71 compares favorably with this.

[3]It will be noticed in Table No. 1 that between the group average elementary school grade and the group average high school grade there is a decline of 6.66 per cent. The Figures, Nos. 1 and 2, and 19 to 31, which compare elementary with high school grades, also show this decline in the lengthening of the high school curve or in other words in the scattering of the high school distribution among many more percentages. The first

of the average pupil as he passes from one school to another. There are, of course, some notable exceptions such as Nos. 7, 11, 31, 45 and 65 who make large jumps one way or the other but these only make the general conclusion stand out the more strikingly.

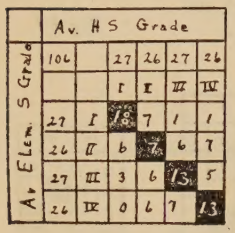

Fig 3

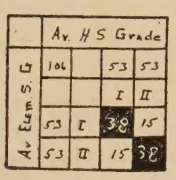

Fig 4

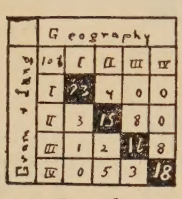

Fig 5

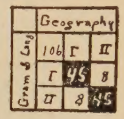

Fig 6

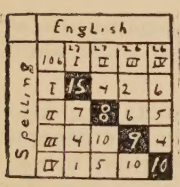

Fig 7

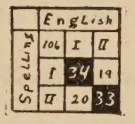

Fig 8

Fig 9

Fig 10

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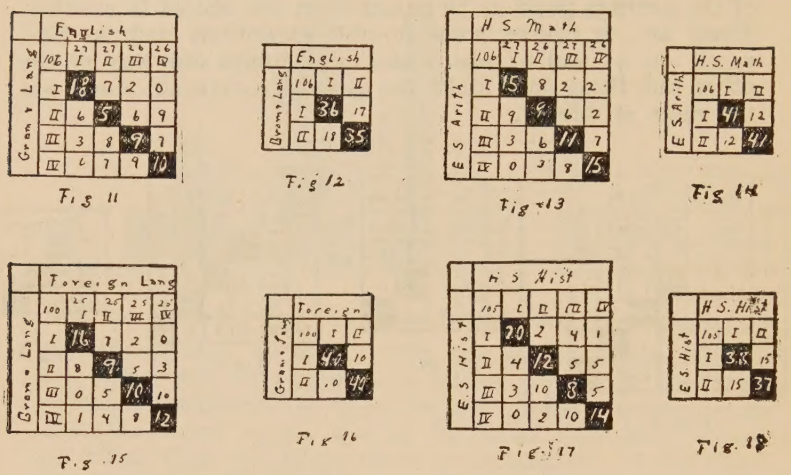
quartile in Figure 2 includes the entire range of the first three quartiles of Figure 1, and quartile two in Figure 2 includes practically the range represented by quartile four in Figure 1. This means that in Figure 2, approximately but half of the total group comes within the whole range of Figure 1. If a pupil could make in the high school the same grade that he made in the elementary school his rank would, in many cases, be raised one or two quartiles. (See Figures 1 and 2, Nos. 39, 65 and 76.) This is not true, however, in the case of one that is in the first quartile in the elementary work. All that such an individual can do is, of course, to obtain a rank nearer the head of his quartile. (See Figures 1 and 2, Nos. 17 and 24.)

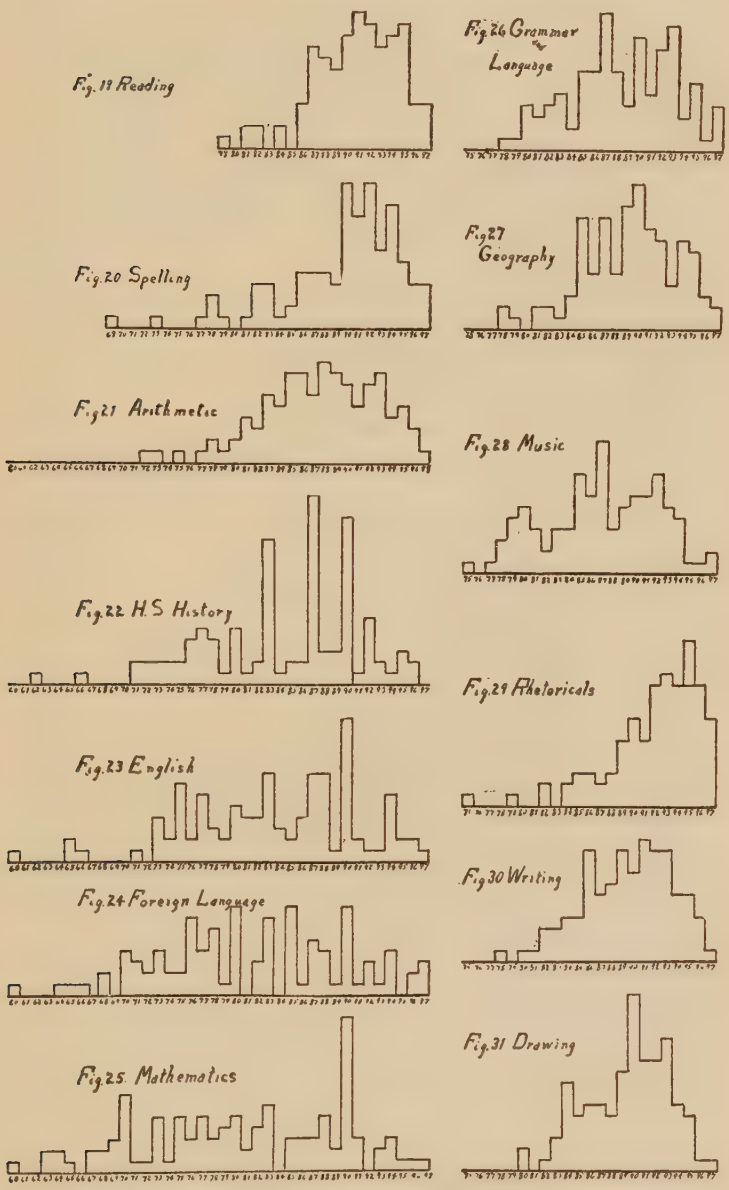
We must bear in mind that those individuals in the first and last quartiles can, so far as the quartile method is concerned, move in but one direction, while those in the two central divisions may move in either direction and thus effect a change which can be taken into account. Moreover the range of one of the central quartiles is usually less than that of the first or fourth quartile, so that a slight fluctuation in those sections more often means a change of quartile. These factors may account for the *slight* correlation which frequently exists in the central quartiles. (See Figures 3, 7, 9, and 11.)



These figures show, 3 to 18, the results of a few representative cases of correlation by quartiles. The white numbers indicate the places where correlation occurs.

(b) The correlations between specific subjects are also quite high though usually less than that between the general averages. A careful comparison of these correlations brings out two or three important facts. It will be noticed that the coefficients of correlations for History with H. S. History and for Arithmetic with H. S. Mathematics are not so high as those for History and Geography, and Arithmetic with Grammar and Language. In other words the correlations between the same subjects in different schools are *not* markedly higher and many times are not so high as those between different subjects either in the same school or in different schools. This may argue a radical difference between the schools themselves; however, the author believes it to indicate more especially a general consistency in the rank of each pupil throughout the various subjects of study. In other words these coefficients would seem to show that if a pupil makes a good mark in one subject he will be quite apt to make good marks in all subjects, similarly the pupil who is poor in one subject will tend to be poor in all.

Upon close inspection of the coefficients of correlation it will be noted that, for example, the coefficients obtained from combinations of Spelling with other subjects are usually relatively low, while those obtained from correlations of Grammar and Language with various other subjects are quite uniformly high. The average coefficient for each subject in



Representative curves of distribution in various subjects.

TABLE NO. 2

Correlations[1]

Subjects of Study	r
Ele. Av. Grade with High School Av. Grade	+.71
Spelling with Reading	+.54
Spelling with Arithmetic	+.51
Spelling with Grammar and Language	+.67
Spelling with Geography	+.55
Spelling with History	+.39
Spelling with English	+.35
Spelling with High School Mathematics	+.26
Spelling with High School History	+.36
Spelling with Foreign Language	+.59
Spelling with Science	+.17
Reading with Arithmetic	+.35
Reading with Grammar and Language	+.59
Reading with Geography	+.58
Reading with History	+.49
Reading with English	+.59
Reading with High School Mathematics	+.26
Reading with Foreign Language	+.30
Reading with High School History	+.43
Reading with Science	+.32
Arithmetic with Grammar and Language	+.67
Arithmetic with Geography	+.69
Arithmetic with History	+.43
Arithmetic with English	+.43
Arithmetic with High School Mathematics	+.62
Arithmetic with High School History	+.59
Grammar and Language with Geography	+.75
Grammar and Language with History	+.56
Grammar and Language with English	+.55
Grammar and Language with High School Mathematics	+.53
Grammar and Language with High School History	+.46
Grammar and Language with Foreign Language	+.61
Geography with History	+.74
History with High School History	+.61
English with Mathematics	+.61
English with High School History	+.61
English with Foreign Language	+.57
English with Science	+.66
Mathematics with High School History	+.69
Mathematics with Foreign Language	+.64
Mathematics with Science	+.58
History with Foreign Language Language	+.58
History with Science	+.64
Foreign Language with Science	+.60

combination with the others is as follows: Spelling + .439, Reading + .445, Arithmetic + .536, Grammar and Language

[1]According to the Pearson Method.

+ .59, History + .536, Geography + .662, English + .546, Mathematics + .524, High School History + .552, Foreign Language + .556 and Science + .495. According to these figures we may say that if one wished to select the grade in a single subject which would be most representative of the individual's general school standing we should take the grade in Geography. The grade which would be least representative of the individual's general standing is the one in Spelling. To make such subjects as Reading or Arithmetic the basis of promotion from grade to grade would thus be manifestly unfair.

Another point to be noted is the difference between the coefficients of correlation where (1) an elementary subject has been correlated with a high school subject and where (2) an elementary subject has been correlated with an elementary subject or a high school subject with a high school subject. There are twenty-five cases of the latter sort. The average of these twenty-five coefficients is + .588. There are eighteen cases where correlations have been made between some elementary subject and some high school subject. The average of these coefficients is + .446. Fifteen coefficients were obtained by correlating elementary school subjects. Their average coefficient is + .567. Ten correlations were made between high school subjects with an average coefficient of + .618. These figures would seem to indicate a difference between schools, as well as showing that correlation is higher between high school subjects than it is between elementary school subjects.

(c) Fourteen from our group of 106 took work in the State University of Iowa after graduating from high school. The average elementary, high school and university grades of these individuals are presented in Table 3. The most striking thing about this table is that the pupils who rank first and last in the elementary and high school standings, also rank first and last respectively in university standing, so far as this group is concerned. There is also marked correlation in case of numbers 4 and 12. Below the table the correlation is indicated by the method of halves, the first seven according to the elementary school ranking, contain six of the first seven according to the university ranking. The high school ranks are seen to correlate with those of the university better than do those of the elementary school.

The Sex Factor

In the gathering of data there was no effort made to obtain records of an equal number of boys and girls. But after the resources were exhausted it was discovered that we had just

TABLE NO. 3

Ranking of Fourteen of the Students who attended the State University of Iowa

Ele. S. Ranking	Ele. S. Number[1]	H. S. Ranking	H. S. Number[1]	Univ. Ranking	Ele.S. Av. Grade	H. S. Av. Grade	Univ. Av. Grade
1	12	1	3	1	94	95	89
2	18	7	38	9	93	85	79
3	21	6	34	12	92	86	73
4	25	4	12	5	92	92	85
5	26	3	11	4	92	92	87
6	28	2	9	2	92	92	88
7	47	10	59	11	90	81	74
8	65	55	23	2	88	88	88
9	77	11	77	5	87	79	85
10	80	8	44	5	87	83	85
11	88	10	80	10	86	78	75
12	91	13	86	13	85	77	69
13	93	9	49	5	85	82	85
14	104	14	101	14	82	73	63

E. S. Rank	H. S. Rank	Univ. Rank		H. S. Rank	Univ. Rank	
6	1	4	3	5	2	
1	6	3	4	2	5	

53 boys and 53 girls in the group. This makes it convenient for comparing the ranking of each sex.

In Figures 32 and 33 the black squares represent boys while the white represents girls. These figures show the distribution according to sex in the elementary and high schools respectively. An inspection of the topmost portion of Table No. 5 will make explicit what is shown in the two previous figures. It will be noted that the first 27 of the elementary school group is composed of 22 girls and 5 boys, the next 26 of 15 girls and 11 boys, the next 27 of 10 girls and 17 boys, while the last 26 contains 6 girls and 20 boys. In the elementary school the girls are decidedly ahead of the boys and, while the difference in the high school is not so great, yet even here the girls are in the lead.

Not only do the girls lead the boys, when we figure on the basis of the general average ranking, but this is also the case in most, if not all, of the specific subjects of study. (See

[1]These numbers indicate rankings in the larger group of 106.

Fig. 32. The distribution of boys and girls in the average elementary school rank. (Black represents boys.)

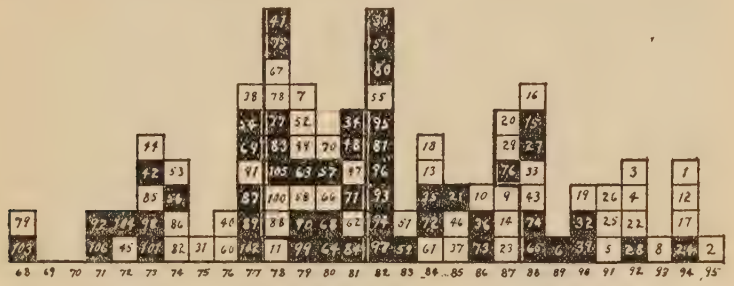


Fig. 33. The distribution of boys and girls in the average high school ranking. (Black represents boys.)

TABLE NO. 4

Group Averages for Boys and Girls

Subjects of Study	Grade	
	Boys	Girls
Elementary School	87.64	90.66
High School	81.47	83.51
Spelling	88.00	84.30
Reading	89.40	92.00
Arithmetic	87.60	87.60
Grammar and Language	87.00	90.20
Geography	88.80	89.80
History	89.40	89.50
Manual Training	84.60	90.80
English	81.20	85.60
Mathematics	79.70	81.30
High School History	84.30	84.10
Foreign Language	80.00	83.10
Science	79.00	81.00

106 Students	Elem. School			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	22	15	10	6
Boys	5	11	17	20

106 Students	High School			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	17	11	12	13
Boys	10	15	15	13

106 Students	Spelling			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	22	13	10	8
Boys	5	13	17	18

106 Students	Reading			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	22	13	10	8
Boys	5	13	17	18

106 Students	Arithmetic			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	15	13	12	13
Boys	12	13	15	13

106 Students	Gram. & Lang.			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	21	17	8	7
Boys	6	9	19	19

106 Students	English			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	20	14	6	12
Boys	7	12	20	14

106 Students	H. S. Math.			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	16	14	9	14
Boys	11	12	18	12

105 Students	H. S. Hist.			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	17	8	12	16
Boys	10	18	15	9

100 Students	Foreign Lang.			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	16	13	14	8
Boys	9	12	11	17

101 Students	Man. Train.			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	24	16	6	2
Boys	2	9	19	23

99 Students	Science			
Quartiles	I	II	III	IV
Girls	17	12	9	13
Boys	8	13	15	12

Table No. 5. Indicating the relative number of boys and girls in the various quartiles in the elementary and high school rankings and in representative subjects.

Tables Nos. 4 and 5.) The distribution in the case of Arithmetic is about as even and as nearly in favor of the boys as anywhere.

The Manual Training grades were something of a surprise from the standpoint of the sex factor. Granting that the division lines for the quartiles, in this subject, were arbitrary, yet in the best 43 of this Manual Training group there are

only 6 boys. The total number of boys (53) took Manual Training while only 48 of the girls had grades in this subject. A thing that will be noticed in several subjects is that the girls have a majority in the first and fourth quartiles while the boys predominate in the two middle quartiles. This may account for the fact that in one or two instances the boys attained a higher average grade than the girls. (See Table No. 4.) It may be noted from this table that in passing from the elementary school to the high school the boys came nearer than the girls to holding their own in average grade.

Why the girls should thus out-class the boys is a hard question to answer. Possibly it is because the girls are more fully developed than the boys or are more conscientious about following the directions of instructors. Then again it may be that the schools do not vitally appeal to the real abilities of the boys.

Rates of Progress

Out of the group of 106 individuals the records indicate that 52, during the elementary school course, skipped a half-year or more of the work. (See Figure 34.) The black squares represent those who thus skipped grades. In no case was skipping counted if it occurred in the first grade, furthermore if, for example, a pupil skipped a half-grade and then later in his course repeated as much, which often happened, neither the skipping nor the repeating was counted.

Altogether there were 102 half-grades skipped in this manner. Of this number 68 cases occur between B Second and B Fifth, while there are 34 cases between A Fifth and A Eighth. (See Figure 38.) The skipping distributed according to the final average marks of those who did it is presented in Figure 37. (The hatching indicates the amount of retardation.) When we take into consideration also the fact that on the average the pupils who skip grades are eight months younger upon graduation than their fellows it is evident that they have in this way really gained some time.

These results are quite the contrary of those attained by Ayres.[1] I have taken the liberty to reproduce in Figure 39 a diagram by which Ayres contrasts the number of pupils making rapid progress with those making slow progress. Judging from the results shown in Ayres's figure it is difficult to account for the rapid progress of nearly one-half of the group which we have studied. To some extent ours is a selected group, to what extent one cannot tell.[2]

[1] *Cf.* "*Laggards in Our Schools.*" Chap. 7.

[2] The teachers in the Iowa City Schools were much surprised to learn of the amount of skipping but offered no explanation.

There were 28 of the boys and 24 of the girls who made rapid progress in the elementary school, while 4 of each sex were retarded in these grades. The boys skipped 48 half-grades, the majority of which were between B Second and B Fifth, while of the 54 half-grades omitted by the girls almost half were between A Fifth and A Eighth.

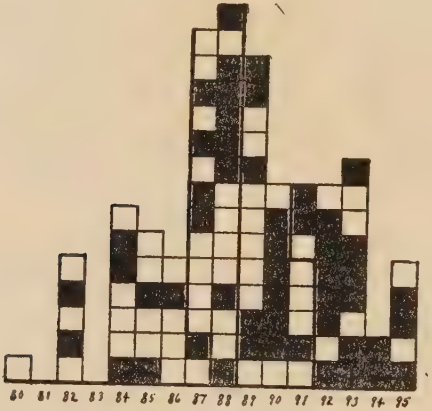


Fig. No. 34. The distribution of those who skipped grades in the elementary school indicated by the black.

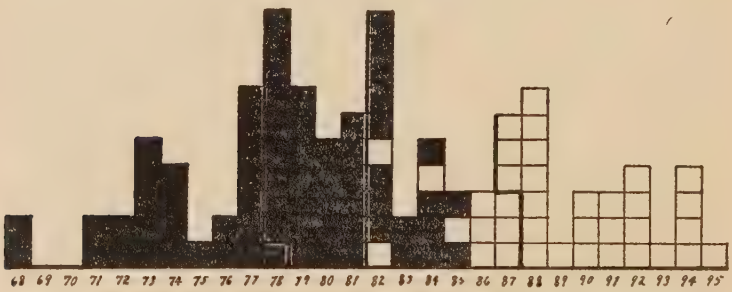


Fig. No. 35. The distribution of those students who had one or more "Fs" in the course of their high school work indicated by the black.

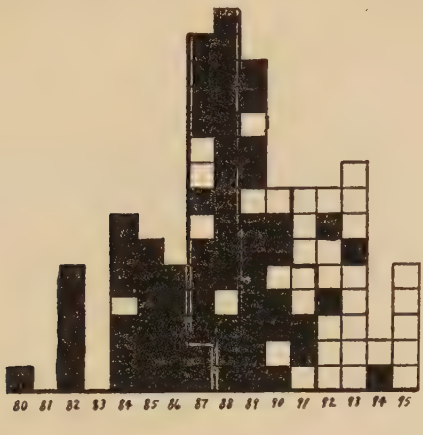


Fig. No. 36. The distribution in the elementary school ranking of those who received one or more "Fs" in their high school work indicated by the black.

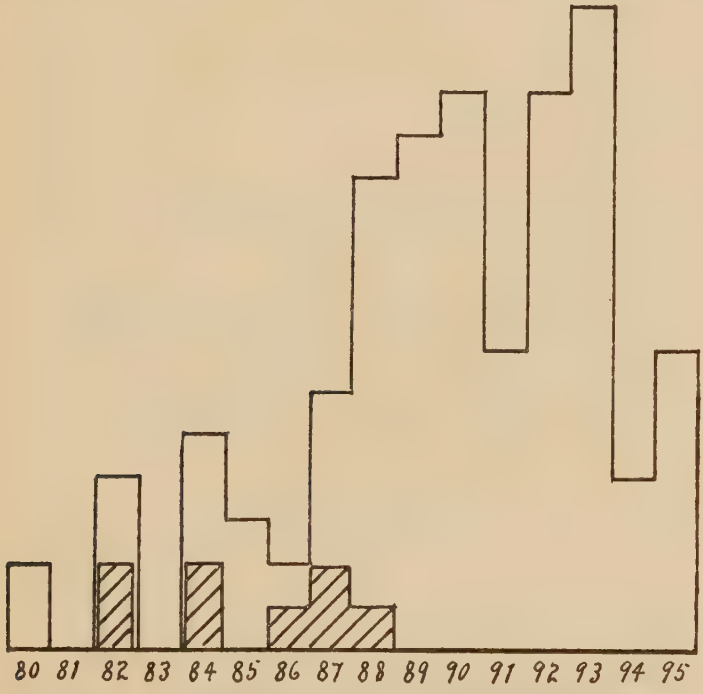


Fig. No. 37. The distribution of the 102 half-grades skipped, according to the final average mark of those who did the skipping.

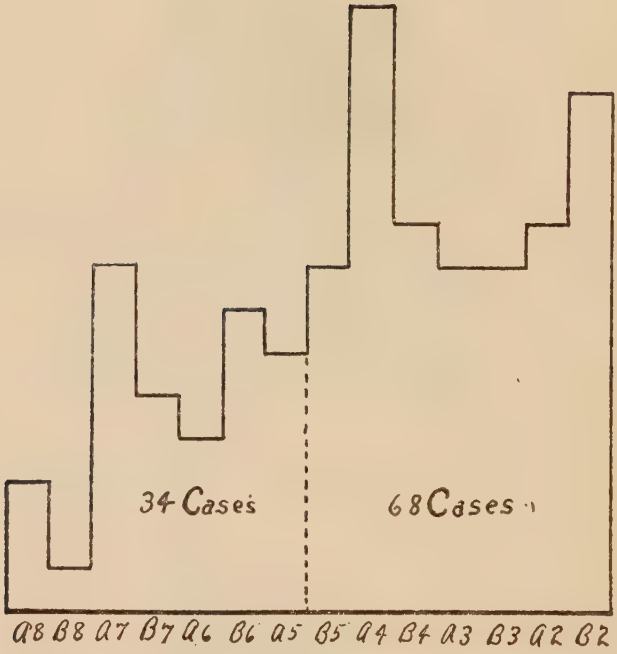
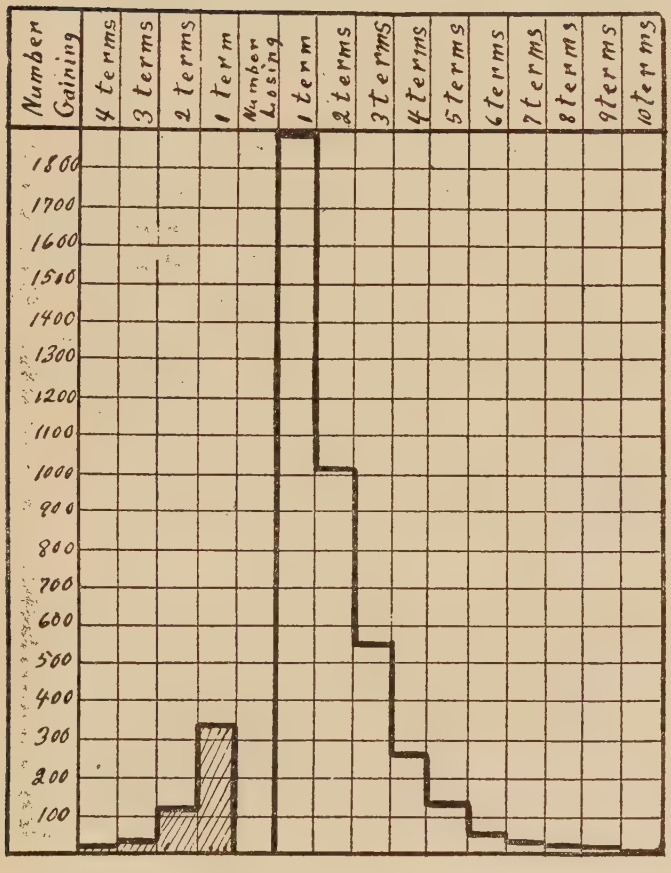


Fig. No. 38. The grades in which the skipping occurred.



Rates of Progress According to Ayres

Fig. 39. Borrowed from "Laggards in Our Schools," Ayres. The hatching indicates those making rapid progress.

The failures in the high school amount to 300 for the whole group. By failure here we mean unsatisfactory work in some

Subjects	Total number of marks in subject	Total number of failures in subject	Per cent. of marks that were failures
English	640	60	9
Mathematics	573	111	19
History	388	26	7
Foreign Language	496	69	14
Science	267	34	13

Table No. 6 indicates the percentage of marks that were failures in the various high school subjects.

subject for a semester. Many of the students had one or two F's while No. 106 had seventeen to his discredit. There were 170 failures among 39 boys while 30 girls made the remaining 130 failures. In Figure 35 the black squares indicate the high school distribution of those who had failures. Figure 36 shows the distribution of these same individuals in the elementary school. The number of failures occurring in each of the high school subjects is shown in Table No. 6. There is thus shown to be a marked correlation between one's position in the elementary school group, and the probability of his making "F's" during his high school course.

Summary

Our study would, therefore, seem to point to the following conclusions: the great majority of the students who take the high school course have made rapid or at least normal progress in the elementary grades; most of the high school students fail in some of their work; the schools seem to be fitted better for girls than for boys; the individual student in passing from the elementary school to the high school seldom changes radically his ranking and the rank which he receives in any one subject will represent nearly the rank which he receives in all subjects.

IMITATIVE WRITING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

By Sarah E. Simons

During the past two school years an experiment was tried in the English department of the Washington high schools, the interesting results of which I offer as the apology for this article. It was an attempt to aid the teaching of English composition by calling into play the innate tendency of the pupil to imitate.

Until recently the principle of imitation has been neglected by professed psychologists and educators. But since M. Tarde's masterly formulation of the laws of imitation, attention has been drawn more and more to its study. We must all acknowledge imitation to be a leading factor in the life of individuals and of society. Tarde makes imitation the very essence of social life; McDougall makes it the essence of individual life. Unconscious imitation begins soon after birth, conscious imitation not long after. The child at work or play is always copying a model. Conscious, rational imitation is a necessary act of all learning; it is the preliminary step to invention or creation. And it is this conscious, deliberate, rational imitation that is of greatest educative value.

Technic in music and the plastic arts is acquired through modeling after the masters. Why should not this method be used by teachers of English? To those who object to the use of imitation in English composition as deadly to originality of expression we would say, "Man cannot create something out of nothing, or form without a model." Moreover imitation is a *means*, not an *end*. Our end is their end; power of self-expression not servile reproduction. We maintain that imitation of a master is a means of gaining power of self-expression not of inducing self-repression. To imitate is not the way to write, but it is one of the ways to learn to write. "To reproduce in your own words" is to develop little linguistic power, but to produce "after the master" is to cause assimilation of the new so that it becomes part of the pupil's linguistic hoard. Imitation is a thought-compelling, dynamic exercise. It is a preliminary step to creation. Mr. Jaspar Newton Deahl, in his interesting monograph on *Imitation in Education*, makes a plea for the use of imitation by teachers as a valuable means of securing mind growth, and Mr. Percival

Chubb, in his illuminating book on *The Teaching of English*, vigorously urges the use of imitation in the teaching of English composition.

From our experience in the use of conscious, deliberate, rational imitation of literary masterpieces as one method of teaching composition we may summarize the benefits to the pupil somewhat roughly as follows:

1. It gives new zest to the theme work; the attack of the pupil becomes vigorous; the very effort necessary to attain the definite end counts for much in forming the habit of working *actively*, in shaking off the indifference the pupil so often brings to his task.

2. The pupil must work with his eye on the object. Necessarily this helps to form habits of close observation, to develop accuracy of expression, to enrich the vocabulary, to rouse a craftsman-like pleasure in the work itself.

3. It stimulates and strengthens the imagination.

4. It aids interpretation and appreciation of the masterpiece. The success of the pupil's imitation is often the measure of his appreciation.

5. It gratifies the pupil's instinct for construction. He looks upon his product as an *achievement*. Ambition is roused, pride stimulated when he feels he can *do* something.

6. It promotes rather than retards *individuality*. The good or even indifferent imitation is to the student at this particular stage, a *creation*. This becomes an aid to *invention*, for power to copy more than one style, will necessarily result in power to combine and assimilate, and ultimately in power to invent a style of one's own.

From the nature of the experiment, the rest of this paper will be made up largely of illustrative material drawn from the pupil's own efforts. The illustrations are submitted as *ends* in themselves, bits of composition work that demonstrate the power of the pupil to copy a model. The conclusions drawn above as to imitation as a *means* of developing literary appreciation and facility of expression must, I fear, be taken for granted by the reader as I have given no comparative tests to classes doing imitative work and those not doing it. Every paper quoted is first draft, untouched by the teacher except in case of misspelled words. I shall now briefly sketch the plan of work and quote here and there typical papers from each year.

First Year

In the first year classes while studying narration, the teacher read aloud a few of Æsop's *Fables*. A half-dozen maxims were then suggested to the pupils who were asked to think

out and write in class an original fable illustrating the motto. The following is typical.

HASTE IS WASTE

One day, a motherless sparrow saw from his cradle a great owl soaring far overhead. The swiftness of the bird's flying, compared with his hopping, was so great that he decided that he too would begin to fly the very next day. Although warned many times, by his older brothers, to wait until his wings grew larger and stronger, he ventured from his nest, which fortunately was in the lower part of the tree. His first sensation was one of delight, but, when he felt himself going down, he quickly changed his mind, about the extreme pleasure of flying. Serious bruises resulted from his fall, and when weeks after, his other brothers and sisters had learned to fly, he keenly felt the time wasted by his haste.

A little later the teacher read aloud a number of Richard Harding Davis's *Van Bibber* stories. These were discussed and compared with other short stories read, for the purpose of selecting the peculiar features of the Van Bibber story. Then original Van Bibber stories were asked for. The response was surprising. Each member of the section wrote a Van Bibber story and in only one case was all flavor of the original lacking. Some five or six were really clever imitations. The length of these papers prevents my quoting more than one.

MR. VAN BIBBER'S QUEST

Mr. Van Bibber was in Washington. He was there on an unusual errand at that.

The evening before as he was taking a walk down Madison Avenue, he happened to meet a friend who had just been to Washington on a business trip. He told Mr. Van Bibber that he had seen his ex-valet, Walters, there on the street peddling shoe-strings, apparently in great destitution. He found out also, that the peddler lived in a certain one of the large tenements in a poor part of the city.

Now Van Bibber had often wondered what had become of Walters. His present valet was all right in his way, but he could not compare with Walters. So he decided to at once go to Washington and look up his man.

Accordingly, the next morning found him breakfasting in the capital city.

Immediately after breakfast, he commenced his search. For practically the whole day he roamed through the busiest portions of the city, taking especial note of peddlers of all kinds. But he saw nothing of Walters.

Van Bibber was thoroughly tired, so he decided to return to his hotel and rest until the next day, when he intended to go to the tenement.

Early on the following morning, he started out in the direction of Washington's poorest tenement district. After leaving the street car, he walked on down a narrow, filthy street until he came to a large building, covering nearly a block. He entered and found himself in a dark, low, foul-smelling passage-way, lined on either side with narrow doors.

Van Bibber was plainly bewildered. He had never imagined that such a place as this existed. He had heard, of course, stories of the East Side in New York, but had thought that such stories were all gross exaggerations. Now he had come face to face with such a life and he was staggered for a moment.

"Well," thought Van Bibber, "even if I don't find Walters, I will at least learn something new. I have visited Washington many times before, but never under such circumstances as these.

He knocked timidly at the first door on his right. After several minutes it was slowly opened by an old woman, who stared at him with large, curious eyes.

"Have you ever heard of a man named Walters living in this house?" he asked.

"Why, yes," answered the woman. "He lived here once. He only stayed a little while, for he said that such a place as this is, the likes of him was n't used to."

"Do you know where he moved to?" was Van Bibber's next question.

"I don't know for sure," she said, "but I think he went to Potomac Alley, which, if I do say so, is a good respectable place. It's a good ways from here though," she added, "and farther towards town."

"Did you know anything about him or his circumstances?" asked Van Bibber again.

"Not much," said the woman. Then in a more confidential tone she went on. "He was a strange man and kept much to himself. But one could tell he was above all this."

After having received such information as the woman was able to give, as to how to find Potomac Alley, Van Bibber thanked her for all of her information and departed.

It was now nearly noon and the streets were filled with people, hurrying to and from their midday meal. Van Bibber began to feel hungry also.

"I believe I will go back and get my lunch," said he to himself. "Then I will feel more like going to see Potomac Alley, and interviewing its 'highly respectable' (?) residents."

After regaling himself with a hearty lunch, Mr. Van Bibber set out, and easily found the alley. It was only one block long and one side of that was only the back of a large hotel. He knocked at the door of the best looking house in the row. The woman who answered the door had heard nothing of anyone named Walters, but she thought maybe her next door neighbor had, as she kept roomers.

Van Bibber stepped up to the door of the next house and knocked. In answer to his question the woman said that Walters had been rooming with her for several months, but that he had paid her up and left that morning.

Upon hearing this, Van Bibber began to fear that he had lost his man after all. He hurried back down town and began to walk through the principal streets. Suddenly he tripped and would have falled if some one's outstretched hand had not caught him. When he turned to thank the owner of the hand, he saw that it was only a poor shoe-string man. As Van Bibber's thoughts were still on Walters, he scarcely noticed the man, but only slipped a quarter into his hand and walked on.

He had not gone very far, however, before he began to realize that there was something strangely familiar in the peddler's outline. Then it suddenly flashed across him that he might be the long-looked-for Walters.

Van Bibber quickly retraced his steps and reached the spot just in time to see the peddler, who had disposed of all his shoe-strings, hurrying around the corner. He followed as quickly as possible and managed always to keep him in sight. At last the man turned into a quiet street and stopped to read a sign.

Van Bibber was quite sure, now, that this man was Walters, so he hastened forward and touched him on the shoulder.

"Why, how do you do, Walters?" he said, speaking as though very much surprised to see him. Walters turned around suddenly and when he recognized Van Bibber he said joyfully, "I certainly am glad to meet you, sir.

I often think of you, for an easier, kinder master, I never had, I am sure, sir."

"You are the very one I want to see, too," said Van Bibber. "I have never yet quite understood the circumstances under which you left me, and I am very curious on the subject."

"I hated to leave such a good place, sir," said he flushing, "but you see it was this way. After behaving as I did, I knew that I could not remain in your service, sir, and rather than be discharged, I decided to leave as I did."

"But," he continued, "I have had bad luck, sir, from first to last. Having no references I could not get another place as valet, so I went down and down until at last I was obliged to sell shoe-strings for a living. I am going to leave Washington to-morrow, sir, and try my luck out West."

"You are going to do no such thing," said Mr. Van Bibber. "You are coming back to me. I am not nearly so comfortable with my present man as I was with you. You are coming, are you not?"

"O, if I only could," said Walters. "I will promise you that hereafter I will always behave in such a manner as becomes my station. I was very proud, sir, but I have been thoroughly humbled."

Mr. Van Bibber and Walters, his valet, returned to New York that night. The next day one of Mr. Van Bibber's friends, happening to drop into his apartments, found the happy Walters, busily at work brushing his master's clothes.

After reading *Sir Patrick Spens*, and discussing the ballad idea and the ballad form, original ballads, such as the following were written by the class. The subject of this was evidently suggested to the pupil by the morning exercises in the class room, for just at this time the teacher was reading to the class the story of Esther.

BALLAD OF ESTHER

The wise men sent for maidens fair
That one the king might love.
The king, he thought the maid Esther
As fair as from above.

And she gained grace within his sight—
The king proclaimed her queen;
And she was loved by all his house,
His country too, I ween.

Now in that land was passed a law
That all the Jews must die.
Queen Esther heard her kinsmen's fate:
Then to the king drew nigh.

The king held forth his golden wand,
And in a gentle tone
Said she might have whate'er was his
Even to half his throne.

The king, he heard her gentle wish.
And granted her her plea:
"My lord I would you'd dine right soon
With Haman and with me."

Then Haman boasted to his friends
That with the king he'd dine.
But long before the feast was o'er
He had no taste for wine.

The king, he harked to Esther fair;
Hanged Haman on a tree.
And all throughout that royal land
The Jews were let go free.

Later in the year, while reading Longfellow's *Tales of a Wayside Inn*, imitations of parts of the Olaf Saga were asked for. The pupils responded with alacrity. With few exceptions all were eager to try and great appreciation of their classmates' efforts was shown when the imitations were read aloud. Nothing remarkable was produced but interest was aroused in the theme work by this exercise. I select at random. This was home work.

CAPTURE OF SIGFREDA

Loud the wind blew and the waters
In confusion tossed the war boat,
As the mighty Viking Goraf
Led his host against King Olaf.
Surge ye waters, ho!

As the "Tiger" neared the Drontheim,
Loud and fearful wailings heard they—
Of a maiden, crying, calling,
And beseeching help from Odin.
Why dost thou weep so?

Goraf landed, and the "Tiger"
Crouched behind a clump of bushes,
Hidden from the eager Berserks,
Watched the fearless Goraf's venture—
Saw him to the rescue go.

"'T is King Olaf's lovely daughter!"
Muttered Goraf, in amazement,
"Should she not be back in Denmark?
Praising loud the Galilean?"
Wild the sea blasts blow.

Then aboard his ship he bore her,
Tho' she never ceased her wailings;
All the Vikings crowded 'round her—
Placed her in the seat of honor—
In the ships great bow.

War was now completely ended,
All their bitter feelings left them,
For the capture of this maiden
Meant a victory for Odin.
So they homeward go.

THOR'S SONG OF VICTORY

I am still mighty
  Monarch of all domain,
O'er the whole world,
  Forever will I reign.

I am the victor
  O'er Olaf, the king,
Sounds from my hammer
  Forever shall ring.

My chariot wheels roll,
  Causing the thunder,
From this result, men
  Tremble and wonder.

Still does my red beard
  Stream through the skies,
Men 'gainst my power
  Never shall rise.

My strength is triumphant,
  My rule shall extend
Over mountain and valley,
  O'er moorland and fen.

A FUNERAL DIRGE FOR KING OLAF

Olaf the King is dead!
Slain by the Danes and the Swedes,
Slain on his fair ship's prow,
Battling for his land and religion,
Battling for all he loved.

Now indeed is Norroway bereaved.
Shorn of her staff and her strength,
Shorn of her victorious leader,
Her mighty all-conquering hero,
Her glorious, Christian ruler!

Oh! sadly is Norroway stricken
Mourn now must Astrid, the Holy,
Mourn must his slaves and adorers,
Wails shall arise from his priests,
Wails, and prayers for his soul.

Bowed with grief is all Norroway,
Gone is her sovereign-protector,
Gone from the land he converted.
Comes now his foeman and conqueror,
Comes now the people's oppressor.

Torn to her foundations is Norroway,
The waves sound a dirge on her shores,
The waves on whose bosom he died
Solemnly mourn through their depths,
Solemnly mourn on forever;
  For Olaf is gone to his rest.

SWANHILD

Fair was Swanhild as the lilies,
  Like the sun's rays were her tresses,
And the very gods in heaven,
  Lavished on her their caresses.

High upon a frowning cliff
  Gleamed the whiteness of the tower
Wherein dwelt the lovely Swanhild,
  Of all Angvalds-ness, the flower.

'Neath the cliff, at ebb of ocean,
  On a narrow strip of sand,
Strolled each day the lovely maiden,
  Hearkening to the sea song, grand.

Often gazed she o'er the billows,
  Striving with her eager eyes
To discern some far off vessel,
  Dark against the distant skies.

Ever eager, ever watchful,
  Waited she for the return
Of her father, Ulf, the Black Wolf,
From his raid on Kernbehöln.

For she wished to gain his favor
  For her lover, Kolbiorn,
Marshal of the great King Olaf,
  And her father's enemy, sworn.

Kolbiorn, forseeing trouble,
  Had to Olaf gone for aid,
Asking of him men and vessels,
  Lest some harm befall the maid.

Swanhild, fearless, waited on,
  Sure her father's love for her
Would outweigh all petty hatred
  That he might her lover bear.

Soon her patience was rewarded,
  And on one eventful day,
Ulf, the Wolf, came sailing homeward
  Victor, from a fearful fray.

On the sand the women waited,
  Singing, dancing, in rejoicing;
On the ships men's voices lifted,
  Joined them, the glad chorus voicing.

Came the men from off the vessels
  In small skiffs with single oars,
Landing safe, victoriously,
  Once more on their native shores.

Up the narrow, rock-hewn stairway
  Tramped the men-at-arms, all singing,

Till the air around, with music
And the clang of steel was ringing.

In the great hall there was feasting,
Merry music and much laughter,
Till the ghostly dawn came creeping,
Lighting up each beam and rafter.

Swanhild rose and asked her father
For consent to marry Kolbiorn
Marshal of the great king Olaf,
And her father's enemy, sworn.

"Never, by my sword," then cried he,
"By the black wolf and the scarlet
Of my banner, shall my daughter
Plight her troth with Christian varlet."

Swanhild, startled, flushed, and angry,
Rose and answered in defiance,
That she'd marry him she favored,
Tho' the gods forbade th' alliance.

Ulf, in fury, bade them bind her
To the tiller of a skiff,
Then out upon the wild sea, cast they
Swanhild, helpless and adrift.

Rose a tempest on the ocean,
Roared the waters, hurled the sleet
Over Swanhild, and the north wind
Cased her in an icy sheet.

Kolbiorn, next morn, returning
With armed men and many ships,
Found the maiden, frozen, lifeless,
With blank eyes and bloodless lips.

Then in great wrath, vengeance sought he,
Razed Ulf's castle to the ground,
Left not one stone on another,
And Ulf's men as captives bound.

Ulf, he slew in single combat,
Ravaged he each wood and field;
Thus his vengeance was completed,
But his heart was never healed.

The second semester of this year the pupils studied Palmer's translation of the *Odyssey*. Keen appreciation of this masterpiece was shown through the imitative work. Often during the reading Homeric figures such as the following were written in class, without preparation, as a fifteen-minute exercise.

As the leafy branch of a tree waves to and fro in the breeze, now bending to one side, now to another; so did Odysseus' ship, moved by the Cyclops' mighty boulder, toss back and forth, in the water.

As the bright sun sinks from the zenith, gradually growing lower and

dimmer until it disappears below the horizon; as the bright flowers close their weary eyes at even'tide and heed not the call of the wind; even so slept the heart of Penelope after Odysseus left, nor did it heed the voices of the suitors.

And, as a pack of dogs, eager for the chase, when let loose from the restraining leash, do howl and bark as they hunt down their prey, so did the winds when let loose from the bag by the sailors of Odysseus howl and rage around the ship, making it redouble on its tracks and recross the sea to the island of Æolus.

At the close of the study of the *Odyssey* the pupils were told to write an original incident, an imaginary adventure of one of the characters, or a classic myth in the style of Homer. Great interest was shown in the exercise. Every pupil produced something worth while and in many cases the results were far from indifferent. The following are illustrative papers.

THE DEATH OF ODYSSEUS

Now that long-wandering Odysseus arrived in his native land, he planned the destruction of the suitors, he and his son and the faithful swineherd Eumæus. Upon the eve of the struggle, as the sun sank into the ocean's stream, Telemachus, the son of Odysseus, mingled with the substance-wasting suitors. Out of the hall he moved all the brazen spears and shields, saying he would clean them. The wine-drinking suitors offered no words of opposition, and straightway his orders were carried out. And now he returned to his father, and they, offering a prayer to Athene, retired upon their beds, and sleep closed their eyes.

When the dawn appeared and the sun drove his chariot up the sky, Odysseus rose from bed, he and his son and the faithful swineherd Eumæus. They gathered together all the faithful servants, and armed them with weapons. And now Odysseus bound under his rags his shining sword of steel, and took his hard-bending bow and quiver full of arrows. And after all was ready they journeyed to the palace, vowing deeds of vengeance. The feast-loving suitors were eating the morning meal. Eurymachus marked the bow in the hands of Odyessus and said: "Beggar, vile man and low, how came you by that weapon? Did you steal it from some house where you begged for bread? You have not strength to string it, and therefore must use it for a staff to lean upon." The wrath of Odysseus rose at the taunt; and standing in the doorway he threw off his rags, appearing in all his kingly strength. He strung the bow, and fitting an arrow to the string let fly at the suitor. As a thunderbolt of god-governing Zeus strikes a wind-driven ship, so did the metal shaft strike Eurymachus. Upon the floor he fell, his blood staining the pavement. And now upon the suitors confusion fell, and thickly among them the arrows flew. The shafts soon were spent and Odysseus and his followers fell to battling with their swords. But the suitors by their great numbers drove them steadily into the walled court, surrounding them on all sides. Great were the numbers that fell by the sword of Odysseus. But now he only remained, with his son and Eumæus. Then fell Eumæus, pierced by a brazen spear. And now Telemachus fell upon the pavement, slippery with blood. From behind he was smitten, his soul passing to the land of the dead. The wrath of Odysseus rose at the sight of his son upon the ground. Quickly his sword flew. Among the suitors was a young Achean, famed for skill with the bow, who drew a brazen arrow to the head and

let fly. It pierced the sorrow-worn heart of Odysseus and thus ended the struggle.

And now as the sun sank into the ocean's stream, the triumphant suitors held a glorious feast, while in her chamber with her maids wept Penelope, for on her the gods had sent a last great sorrow.

ARIADNE IN THE HALLS OF HADES

In the midst of the dark gloom which forever hangs over the land of Hades, stood mighty Odysseus, holding his shining sword over the dark blood and the open pit.

And now came Ariadne, gentle and beautiful, daughter of powerful Minos, and beloved of Theseus; and when she had drunk of the dark blood, god-like Odysseus straightway questioned her, begging her to tell him her pitiful story. Then, letting the big tears fall, thus spoke beautiful Ariadne:

"Noblest of men, hardy Odysseus, mine is but a sorrowful tale. After I had fore-warned brave Theseus and had thus saved him from the minotaur, we then embarked in curved ships for fair Athens, the home of Theseus, where I was to be his bride. After many pleasant days upon the salt-strewn acres of the sea, we reached an island, sea-girt Dia, where Theseus left me alone and unprotected, sailing away to Athens. As a child plucks a bright, sweet flower which he loves and cherishes for a short time, then casts it from him carelessly, to let its loveliness wither on the barren ground; so Theseus ruthlessly abandoned me on that solitary island. Finally the fair-haired huntress, Artemis, slew me with her gentle arrow, taking pity on my distress, and from thence I descended into the dark halls of Hades."

So saying gentle Ariadne bowed her head and passed on silently, like a shadow, making place for the other spirits, eager to drink the dark blood under the drawn sword of god-like Odysseus.

THE LAND OF THE LOTUS EATERS

Long-haired, royal Odysseus had drifted for ten days on the wine dark sea, when he reached the flowery coast where dwelt the Lotus eaters, people who exist upon honeyed blossoms, and who live a life of dreamy forgetfulness. Three of his sturdy men had Odysseus sent forth to discover what manner of people were there, and at their delayed return, god-like Odysseus himself started in search of them.

Bright flowers and balmy air were there in that drowsy land through which Odysseus journeyed, greatly marvelling. Once he came upon an arbor, redolent with the heavy fragrance of the lotus, and questioned the youth who wandered there, about the land. But, with a smile in his dreamy eyes, the youth offered him a creamy blossom, and Odysseus passed on, disdaining it. With a misgiving heart, Odysseus soon came upon an open glade, where many people were assembled, among them his three soldiers. Advancing toward mighty Odysseus, with lotus blossoms in their hands, they bade him eat. Then would god-like Odysseus indeed have eaten of the honeyed flowers, and forgotten his fair land of Ithaca, had not the light form of the divine Speedycomer suddenly appeared at his side, forbidding him to taste the blossoms.

Then mighty Odysseus, blushing with shame, bound his sturdy men with ropes, and quickly led them from that drowsy land, lest he be tempted again by the lotus flowers. Embarking in his curved ships, Odysseus again trusted himself to the wine-dark sea, fleeing from that fateful land.

Second Year

When studying Webster's *First Bunker Hill Oration* in

the second year, experiments similar to the following were tried. The third section of the oration beginning, "We live in a most extraordinary age," was read aloud in class. Then the pupils were asked to develop the same topic sentence, applying the thought to our own times. I offer a typical paper.

ADDRESS TO THE SHADE OF DANIEL WEBSTER

We live in a most extraordinary age. We have just read what you consider such an immense growth. From twelve million souls we have been augmented to about eighty-five million. Three outside territories and twenty-three states have been added to "Uncle Sam's" growing family. Such things as the telegraph and telephone, which are so common now, were not even dreamed of in your time. In the field of education the whole world has advanced with marvelous strides. Just think what Edison has done with electricity which was comparatively unknown in your day. Again only pause for a moment to consider the change in architecture and construction which has taken place since your famous oration in 1825. Compare the usefulness of the stage-coach with that of the Pullman car. The commerce of the country, which you boast of, would not equal that which is carried on by the city of New York. The navy of your time would not now be used as freight vessels. If you could come to life now it would take you all your life to get accustomed to our enlarged ideas and customs.

After the study of Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration and Washington's Farewell Address was completed, original orations were required of all the students on such subjects as:

A Flag Day Oration.
Speech for the Fourth of July.
Decoration Day.
Lincoln's Birth-Day.
The Twenty-second of February.

This illustration was written in class,—time about thirty-five minutes.

"DULCE ET DECORUM EST PRO PATRIA MORI"

From the very beginning of the settlement of America, this has been one of the noblest themes of Americans. It is the spirit which it portrays that the Pilgrim fathers brought with them when they left their native home to protect their rights. It was again displayed by our forefathers in the Revolutionary War and the great Civil War. The very thought of dying for one's country thrills every true soldier when he marches off to battle. For what better cause could he die? It is often the greatest desire of some persons to become popular. There is no better way in the world to attain this achievement, than to do some worthy deed for his country. Our great heroes are the most beloved of our people. Held in affection even above the poets, painters, and composers, their names always bring the satisfaction of heroism to future generations.

The greatest men, the noblest men, the men whose histories shall be loved and cherished forever are the ones who have died sweetly and becomingly for their country.

In connection with the study of *Ivanhoe* we tried ballad

writing again. As a preparation two days were spent in the study of the meter and the spirit of some of the Robin Hood ballads. Then the members of the class were asked to write a ballad on some subject suggested by Ivanhoe. An alternative exercise of a prose incident was suggested. It is rather significant that only three members of the class chose the prose assignment. Such subjects as *Pax Vobiscum, The Clerk of Copmanhurst, Friar Tuck's Revels, Under the Greenwood,* were turned into creditable rhymes. Two examples follow.

THE PASSWORD

"If from this prison you would escape,
Change your suit for a friar's cape,
And to every one you meet,
Solemnly these words repeat,
'Pax vobiscum.'"

"Watch and ward, knight and squire,
That is all they will require,
Here your safety rest alone,
Speak it thus in a deep, grave tone,
'Pax vobiscum.'"

Cedric passed into the hall,
Heard a maiden to him call,
And to her he softly said,
As he passed with lowered head,
"Pax vobiscum."

Down the quiet hall he went,
Met a woman, old and bent,
To her greetings he replied
As he slowly stepped aside,
"Pax vobiscum."

Cedric stopped at a sudden call,
Before him stood a warrior tall,
Who lowered his long, sharp-pointed spear,
When he these solemn words did hear,
"Pax vobiscum."

Down the long hall Cedric passed,
Met stern Front-de-Bœuf at last,
And his heart within did quake,
As this solemn phrase he spake
"Pax vobiscum."

Out into the air he passed,
Through the gateway, free at last,
As he stood there, safe and free,
He murmured this phrase of liberty
"Pax vobiscum."

FRIAR TUCK'S REVEL

It would be hard to find, indeed,
A man who less obeyed his creed;
Who strove to go from bad to worse,
Than Friar Tuck of Copmanhurst.

He loved the sparkling quaff of wine,
On venison he chose to dine;
He joined the band of Robin, bold,
To satisfy his lust for gold.

Of worldly joys he liked to share:
To sup, to drink, hunt, sing, and swear;
His holy gown with texture thin,
Did cover a multitude of sin.

Once to this man King Richard went,
His mind was not on pleasure bent;
But his heart was filled with the utmost glee,
By a noisy feast of jollity.

The friar at first brought out some pease,
But this did not the Black Knight please;
So in order to satisfy his guest,
The holy monk procured his best.

A flagon of some good old cheer,
Accompanied was, by a cut of deer,
And seasoned with appropriate jest,
The knight and friar ate with zest.

Joy ran high the whole night through;
They toasted each—sang ballads, too,
And slacked many a long, long thirst,
From the friar's "well" of Copmanhurst.

While studying *Sohrab and Rustum*, the class tried their hand at Homeric similes after the manner of Arnold. I offer the following.

A WORK-SHOP IN FULL SWING

On an early spring morning a work-shop in full swing is a busy scene indeed. The ceaseless hum of the many busy workers can be heard constantly. *As bees in a hive pass in and out carrying their burdens of honey, then make the tiny cells and deposit their sweet substances into them, and buzz out again in a continuous stream, never stopping to rest or play; so the never ending stream of workers passes to and fro in the workshop.* Such a sight leaves one with an impression not soon to be forgotten.

It was very early. The sun just peeping above the hill's crest warmed the dewey grass. William, lazily driving the cows to pasture, drank in the sparkling freshness of the morn.

As in the spring the lark rising with the dawn, pours its bright song into the air, in one continuous burst of ecstasy, while swiftly it soars and high, for very joy it sings; so William for very joy of living, burst into song.

Third Year

The imitative work of the third and fourth years was productive of most satisfactory results. Genuine enthusiasm was shown and the effect of this practice on all the composition work was far-reaching. Especially note-worthy was the verse writing.

After the study of Chaucer's Prologue and The Knight's Tale, imitations were assigned. The response was surprising,

both because of the number of pupils who handed in really creditable lines, and because of the note of appreciation evidenced by the product. The class took an imaginary journey to Mount Vernon, and described various characters observed on the steamer.

THE ARMY OFFICER

Now that ye wiste the reasons oon and all
Why that these sondry folk did chaunce to fall
Together, at Mount Vernon on a day
When was the Spring, 't was in the month of May,
Methinketh it is well, now, oon by oon,
To tellen ye of the folk, omitting noon,
Who formed this gay and merry companye.
First of a soldier of the Infantrye.
This soldier was a brave and worthy man
So brave was he, that when he first began
To fight for his countree, in battles bold,
He won renoun, as mayhap youv'e been told,
By taking all alone, and with no aid,
The famous man who led the other seide,
The General of the foe, it was eek he,
And for this deed, this worthy man, pardee,
Was made an officer with higher pay.
Now for his faithful work, he is this day
A Col'onel' honoured by men alle.
This ilke man, his honours bar withal
In way not proud, but with a modest mien.
His uniform he wore ful neat and clene,
With collar whyte and cuffs and gloves it lyke.
His shoes shone bright also his cappes peake.
More of his dress I need not tellen ye.
I think that he was cleped Smith, John A.

THE FOOT-BALL PLAYER

A foot-ball player eek with us ther was.
His heer was long and gold and shone lyk glas,
And it was thick and mussed and stoud about
In al directions; and he was stout
And eek he was ful brood and varray tall.
His arm was in a sling, that was not al,
He limped when he walked about the boat,
He wore a bandage tyde about his throat.
Upon his cheek ther was a scar ful reed,
A piece of sticking plaster on his heed.
For sothe he was a foot-ball man, with-alle,
But sooth to seyn, I noot how men him calle.

THE LITEL GIRL

A litel girl ther was on this viage,
And she the brightest on our pilgrimage,
Whyt was hir dress as is the dayesye
And she was clepen faire Emelye.
Ful semely hir lokkes as it were,
Hir eyen bright as is the morning sterre.
Full oft she song whyl on the deck she sat.
Upon hir arm she bar hir seylor hat.

With her she hadde a "Teddy Beare" smalle
Of her I telle yow no longer tale.

A WIF

A good wif was there fro the middle weste,
That sayde alway she thoght that home was beste;
Therefore up to this tyme she nadde stirred
Fro out her native town; ne hadde she feared
Thereby to ruste in the new world ways
But wolde in simple peace spend al her days.
A thrifty housekeeper she was, I gesse;
Ther coude noon in al hir town hir passe
In churning butter and in baking bread.
Hir hat with spangles bright was purfiled,
Hir gowne of blake was neet and wel y-made
And semed new, though it ten yeer she hadde.
In sooth she was a verry perfit wif;
Hir only fault that she talked out our lyf.

A SCOLE-GIRLE

A scole-girle was ther in this compaignye,
To Central High Scole went she to scoleye;
Yet of studie she took but litel hede,
For of Latin and Greek what hadde she nede?
Yet natheless ful well beloved was she,
So plesaunt and so brighte for to see.
Well coude she sing and pleyen all by note.
For all our ills her smyling was a bote.
A large reed hat she wore upon her heed.
As heavy was it as a pound of leed.
Therfor her heed she coulde not bend at alle,
Because she was aferd that it would falle.
A pompodour she hadde of yellow heres,
And a collar with points up to her eres.
Quite gay and jaunty was her appearance.
Delyte it was to have her aqueytaunce.

After the pupils had read Pope's *Rape of the Lock* and studied Halleck's comments on the rhyming couplet, the following assignment was given. "Write at least five rhyming couplets, preferably about some familiar matter of school life." Every pupil responded with interest and in some cases, success. One paper was that of a girl who could not get a start on her own initiative, but managed to convert a prose selection into very passable couplets. One of the interesting things about the experiment was the bringing out of unsuspected ability in pupils of careless or indifferent habits in their ordinary theme writing, especially among the boys. The two I quote are typical.

MY EFFORT FOR AN "E"

Though poets are as scarce as snow in May,
I must become one now my teachers say.
And while this poem will certainly be poor,
It can't be worse than some you'll get, I'm sure.

For unto very few this gift is sent,
And o'er this task much labor will be spent (?)
And writing poetry surely is no fun,
So I shall be quite pleased when this is done,
And if this stuff should please in like degree,
Perchance your pen will slip and I'll get "E"! ! !

THE END OF THE FIRST SEMESTER

The first semester was about to end;
The boys to books their minds began to lend.
All plays were shunned like very dangerous foes,
And girls paid less attention to their "beaux;"
All football was forgot and "skipping" too,
For dread examinations were in view;
The teachers wore those very worried airs
As if *they* were the ones who had the cares.
All inmates of the school seemed steeped in woes;—
The first semester was about to close.

While reading Cowper, Collins, Gray, and Goldsmith in Palgrave's *Golden Treasury* the following were produced by a class of boys in the McKinley Manual Training School. They were written in class, a period of forty-five minutes being given to the exercise.

TWILIGHT

The day now deepens slowly into dark
And flying birds no longer can be seen;
But in the deep'ning gloom, out on the green
The busy firefly shows his tiny spark
Which lights the way. Now all is still, but hark
A sound comes from the moonlight's misty sheen;
The night bird's presence is more felt than seen
As he pours forth his music through the park.
The twilight brings a peace and rest from care
Which like a balm o'er troubled spirits steal
And quiet give which through the day we've sought
In vain. And now that long wished calm is there,
Which e'en we in the night bird's music feel,
And which a blessing brings with ev'ry thought.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 23, 1909.

Mr. Spectator,
Dear Sir:

In accordance with your avowed policy of bringing to the public notice, such faults as are not amenable to the law, nor yet of sufficient importance as to be reprimanded from the pulpit, I ask that you will devote some attention to censuring the practice of women wearing the "Merry Widow" hat. These hats are a source of the keenest annoyance to men, and are out of place entirely when worn in business places, or places of public amusement. In view of this fact, will you kindly bring to bear what influence you have with the women, on the adoption of a smaller style of headgear? Feeling sure that you will see the sense in this request, and hoping that you will be able to accede to it, I am

Yours respectfully,
A. LINCOLN SMITH.

In looking over Mr. Smith's opinion, I cannot but feel that he has exercised great moderation in expressing it. He has probably felt the subject to be broad enough to speak for itself. My own recent observations have proved to me most conclusively that these hats are a public nuisance; they are out of place everywhere; they constitute a real danger to humanity; and their vices are not offset by any virtue.

These hats are out of place everywhere, not alone at business places, and places of amusement, as Mr. Smith kindly says. The very streets themselves are often the witnesses of collisions between them, and, as for the street cars—well, I am almost inclined to agree with one of my facetious correspondents who suggests that the new Fourteenth Street cars were made so roomy in order to accommodate the passengers' hats rather than the passengers. It is almost absurd to urge that these hats are in the way in business places, the fact is too obvious. It would also be better were a smaller style substituted for them at such social affairs as call for a hat, since the innovation would not only eliminate the bad temper caused by continually trying to dodge these millinery achievements, but would greatly facilitate the movements of the guests attending these functions. Still less should the "Merry Widow" be worn in church. The pastors of the many churches in this city, have recognized the fact that a perpetual fear of our neighbor's hat is not conducive to pious thoughts, but rather changes the Golden Rule into a desire to "do to others as they do unto us." This desire, therefore, helps spread this style of hat, for if the "us" be women, when next they come to church, they are likewise provided with this combination shield and instrument for inflicting penance on the unfortunates next to them. That the ministers as a whole deplore the prevalence of the enormous hat is shown by the fact that several have already incidentally spoken against it in their sermons, and that others have threatened to do so, one well-known priest declaring that he would use the text, "Come down, topknots," as the foundation of a sermon against it. And, indeed, it seems to me, that these worthy disciples are right to regret that, in an age when church and theatre are hardly in harmony with one another, the freak product of the stage should inconvenience sincere worship.

Were it merely out of place in all phases of life, the "Merry Widow" hat would only be a negatively harmful fad. This it ceases to be, however, and becomes positively harmful when it becomes a physical, mental, and moral danger to the women who wear it as well as to the men. Not so much is heard against it from the former sex as from the latter, however, as the desire to be in style overpowers the annoyance caused by this particular style, and, like sheep, the women follow their Parisian leaders. The men, on the other hand, feel no hesitancy in declaring their attitude toward the "Merry Widow," when, if they only knew it, the real martyrs are the women who cheerfully sacrifice themselves on the altar of Dame Fashion. That man must not think himself the only sufferer, whose face bears scars as souvenirs of the unavoidable encounters with the stylish hat. If he does, let him think of the wearer of the hat; of the combined weight of her hat, and the coiffure necessary to set off the latter, and then ask himself which is most to be pitied, the woman who lacks sufficient independence of spirit to rid herself of a burden which saps her strength and dulls her wits, or the man who permits it to absorb such of his attention as could be more profitably directed eslewhere? The one is mental, the other is physical weakness. Both are morally harmed by this type of hat, for it encourages false pride in the woman, as shown by her self-repression in a mistaken cause, and it encourages bad temper in the man, some of the previously mentioned letters bearing witness to the latter fact. How much better it would be if the self-control capable of being exercised by women in a wrong cause, could be exercised for a higher cause, and how much more would the world be improved if men were as intent

upon removing greater evils as they are upon removing the "Merry Widow" hat!

No matter how bad a thing may be, it is very seldom that there is not some redeeming feature about it. But even this virtue is missing in this outlandish headdress. The possible uses to which it might be put are in every case defeated by the ingenuity of its followers. It ceases to be useful as an umbrella when it, in turn, must be protected, and so calls forth a very long-handed parasol as a necessary adjunct to the well groomed woman's costume. Now that vegetable gardens constitute the fashionable trimming for hats, a turned-up brim suggests infinite possibilities as a market basket, but these, too, are shattered by the mushroom, the millinery name for the turned down shape, I am told. Even my last idea as to a possible use was dissipated by an incident which occurred but a few days ago. I was down in the New Union Station to bid a friend goodbye, when he suddenly called my attention to two effusive young ladies who were endeavoring to snatch a farewell kiss prior to the departure of one of them. Their hats prevented this, however, and so they were laying themselves open to criticism by laughing immoderately while trying to overcome this apparently insurmountable difficulty. Even as I nodded my disapproval of the spectacle, the thought suddenly occurred to me that here, at last, was a genuine use of the "Merry Widow" hat. The spread of disease germs by the kiss was not countenanced by it, I thought, and as two men seldom indulge in this salutation, my hopes for the increasing health of the world were waxing high. But I was doomed to disappointment. An idea suggested itself to the young women, and carrying it out, they were able to exchange a hearty kiss by tilting their heads on opposite sides. And so I gave up all hope of being the discoverer of a virtue in the "Merry Widow," even the virtue of beauty, for there is no beauty in topping any figure with an inverted dishpan.

In thus censuring the "Merry Widow" hat, I feel that I have censured but one of a number of the evils of female attire. It is almost impossible to devote a separate paper to each one of these extremes, for in this, the day of extremes, nearly every feature of the dress of our mothers and sisters, from the crowns of their beplumed hats to the soles of their absurdly high-heeled shoes, should come in for its share of condemnation. I can only hope that women may awaken to this fact, and by the exercise of sufficient firmness of purpose, keep their clothing along sensible lines and not sacrifice themselves, and sometimes others, mentally, morally, and physically to an extreme fashion simply because it is the fashion.

Fourth Year

The fourth year papers were more carefully worked out than those of the other papers. After studying Burke's speech *On Conciliation*, original speeches were required of each member of the class. These speeches were supposed to be delivered before audiences for some specific purpose. In more than one section, indeed the results astonished us all. The pupils without exception caught the manner and spirit of Burke. Such subjects as *The Nicaraguan Situation, In Defence of Football, Reform in Hairdressing, A Lincoln Memorial* were chosen. I quote the following.

THE STUDY OF BURKE'S SPEECH ON CONCILIATION

A few weeks ago my noble friend in the blue skirt asked a review question on Burke. Upon the discovery that no one in the class knew the

answer, she stepped before us and said, "You look dazed, you look as if you were getting nothing from your Burke. I am afraid the effect of Burke is but temporary, but uncertain. I hope it does not impair the object." I do confess that I disagree with her when she says that, as I at least have gotten some fixed ideas from the speech.

Surely it is an awful subject, or there is none so on this side of the grave. It is a subject that has not only kept me in at nights, but awake. It is a subject that has deprived me of great pleasures. It is such a subject, that, when my honorable friends of the shoulder straps stood up to recite, their ideas were blown about by every wind of fashionable doctrine.

The proposition is education. Not education through the medium of light reading; not education to be hunted through the labyrinth of exciting fiction; not education to arise out of universal small talk. It is simple education sought in its natural course and in its ordinary haunts. It is education sought in the spirit of education, and laid upon a firm foundation. I propose by the study of Burke to give permanent knowledge.

The capital leading questions are these two:

First, whether we are capable of studying Burke's Speech in the fourth year; and secondly, whether we are benefitted by studying it. The first question composes four fundamental propositions. The propositions are all mere matters of fact, and if they are such facts as draw irresistible conclusions, even in the stating, this is the power of truth and not any management of mine.

The first is a resolution—

"That the pupils of the fourth year of Central High School, consisting of five separate sections, and containing about one hundred and fifty pupils, are not too young and immature for the study of Burke's speech *On Conciliation*." This is a plain matter of fact, necessary to be laid down; as one glance at us would convince the most sceptical.

The second is like unto the first—

"That the said pupils have been touched and grieved by the doubt of their ability to study and comprehend Burke's Speech."

The next proposition is—

"That during the first three years of high school the work of the pupils has been devised for the purpose of developing an ability to undertake the study of Burke."

The fourth resolution is—

"That each of the said pupils hath within himself a brain capable of understanding Burke's speech *On Conciliation*, with powers to discuss, to apply, and to write papers upon the propositions contained therein."

This makes the whole of the fundamental part of the plan of my first question. The conclusion is irresistible. Now if we pupils are capable of studying Burke, are we benefitted by it? Of course we are; there is none among us who could not give the substance of at least five of the six propositions. There is none among us who could not converse intelligently upon the speech in general. There is none among us who has not formed some fixed ideas upon it.

Just think, it has all happened within the short period of three months. Suppose that an angel were to have come to us at the beginning of the year, when Burke's speech was unknown to us, and have said: "See, there is Burke, which at this day is only the title of a strange book; yet shall you, before Christmas, not only read and study, but understand this book. Upon your minds shall be deeply engravened the struggles and the trials, the misfortunes and the triumphs of the colonies. From your pens shall flow papers upon this mighty subject!" If this state of our study had been foretold to us, would it not have required all the sanguine credulity of youth, and all the fervid glow of enthusiasm, to make us believe it? Fortunate pupils, we have lived to see it! As we have been

enabled to write pages upon Burke, surely we are capable of handling it and are benefited by it.

My honorable opponents will say that what we get from Burke is temporary, is uncertain, and impairs the object. But it is not temporary; for years could not blot from the mind, that which has been thoroughly studied when young. It is not uncertain, because during three solid months, four times a week, no pupil could succeed in evading Burke; and it cannot impair the object because it was the most celebrated speech, of the best informed man, upon the subject of the greatest importance at that time.

Since our main object of to-day is to broaden our minds, we should not weaken them by reading cheap novels. My idea, therefore, is to study works like Burke's speech.

For that service, for all service, my trust is in our interest in Burke. Let us always keep the idea of Burke associated with our education—it will cling and grapple to us, and no force under heaven will be of power sufficient to tear it from our heads. But let it once be understood that our education may be one thing and Burke's Speech another; that these two things may exist without any mutual relation—the cement is gone, the cohesion is loosened, and everything hastens to forgetfulness and narrow mindedness. The more books we read, the greater friend we will find in Burke, the more ardently we love learning, the more perfect will be our understanding of it. Cheap novels we can have anywhere. They are weeds that grow in every soil. We may have them from France; we may have them from Germany. But until we become lost to all feeling of our true interest and our natural dignity, good reading we can always have from Burke. This is the true link of education, which secures to us wealth of literature. Do not entertain so weak an imagination that our light fiction and our small talk are what form the great staples of our education. These things do not make our education. Dead instruments, passive tools as they are, it is the spirit of Burke that gives to us knowledge and understanding. It is the spirit of Burke's speech, which, infused through the mighty mass, pervades, feeds, unites, invigorates, vivifies every part of the fourth year, even down to the minutest member. (The Goldust Twin).

In full confidence of this unalterable truth, I now lay the first stone of our education—

That the pupils of the fourth year of Central High School, consisting of five separate sections, and containing one hundred and fifty pupils, are not too young and immature for the study of Burke's speech *On Conciliation.* (Quod Erat Demonstrandum!)

REPRESENTATIVE B———'S SPEECH

ON HIS BILL AUTHORIZING THE SECRETARY OF STATE TO OFFICIALLY RECOGNIZE ESTRADA'S GOVERNMENT AS THE GOVERNMENT OF NICARAGUA

DELIVERED IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, JANUARY —, 1910

The Nicaraguan situation, Mr. Speaker, is surely an awful subject. The execution of two Americans, by order of Zelaya, compels us to take up the matter for discussion.

The proposition is peace for Nicaragua, whether it be peace through the medium of war, or peace hunted through the labyrinth of intricate and endless negotiations. It is simply peace for Nicaragua for which we are seeking. It may not be peace sought in the spirit of peace or laid in principles purely pacific; however, I propose, by removing the cause of the disruption to establish peace in Nicaragua.

This government, in sending the battle ship *Prairie* to Nicaragua, has made some steps toward peace in Nicaragua. It has gone farther; it has refused recognition to Zelaya's representative.

The capital leading questions on which you must this day decide, are these two: First, whether you ought to intercede; and secondly, what your intercession ought to be. On the first of these questions, we have gained (as I have just taken the liberty of observing to you) some ground. However, Mr. Speaker, to enable us to determine both on the one and the other of these great questions with a fair and precise judgment, I think it may be necessary to consider distinctly the true nature and the peculiar circumstances of the Nicaraguan situation, because, we must treat the subject according to the nature and circumstances, and not according to our own imaginations, nor according to abstract ideas of right.

The first thing that we have to consider with regard to the nature of the object is, the size and population of Nicaragua. It contains only 49,000 square miles, which is about the size of Louisiana. There are but 500,000 inhabitants in the entire country, or less than one-sixth of the population of New York City.

I have here the consular reports, which give an approximate idea of the volume of foreign commerce of Nicaragua. The import trade of Nicaragua in 1901 amounted to the paltry sum of $3,240,000; the export trade in the same year amounted to $2,736,000.

I pass, now, to Nicaragua, in another point of view—its agriculture. The farming regions of the west are capable of vastly greater development than has yet been attained. At its highest point of development, however, it could not compare with our southern states. Indeed, the Nicaraguan country is not one which specializes in agriculture.

Manufacturing enterprises, too, are little developed. The country depends for its manufactures chiefly upon imports.

Nicaragua, Mr. Speaker, is not a noble object; it is not an object worth fighting for. Although force would be permanent, as Nicaragua has not a large enough army or navy to overthrow one battle ship, if it were stationed there, although force would be certain for the same reason, although force would not impair the object, since the Nicaraguans would be afraid to fight if a fleet were sent there, and therefore, there would be no blood shed,—although all these things are true, yet force (and by the word force, I imply a battle) would not be expedient.

There are, however, three ways of dealing with the matter of intercession. Either we may prosecute Zelaya as a criminal, take Nicaragua under our protection as a possession, or change the spirit of the government by recognizing Estrada's government. I would not be guilty of an imperfect enumeration. I can think of but these three. Another might be thought of,—that of dropping the matter, entirely—but it would meet with so slight a reception, that I do not think myself obliged to dwell a great while upon it.

The first of these plans, to prosecute Zelaya as a criminal, I think is the most like a systematic proceeding. It is radical in its principle, and while it would not be impossible, it would be quite inexpedient to bring the ruler of one country to another country for trial. It would, surely, place us in an embarrassing position.

If then, Mr. Speaker, it seems inexpedient to bring Zelaya to the United States for trial—the second mode under consideration is, to establish Nicaragua as one of the possessions of the United States.

This proposition, in my mind, needs little consideration. It would not be worth the trouble (however little that trouble might be) to make Nicaragua a possession. There is not enough of Nicaragua that is worth having.

If, then, the prosecution of Zelaya as a criminal is inexpedient, if the establishing of Nicaragua as a possession is utter folly, what way yet remains? No way is open but the third and last—to recognize Estrada's government.

My idea, therefore, without considering whether we yield as a matter of right, or grant as a matter of favor, is to establish Estrada's government in Nicaragua.

In forming a plan for this purpose, I endeavored to put myself in that frame of mind which was the most natural and the most reasonable, and which was certainly the most probable means of securing me from all error. I set out with a perfect distrust of my own abilities and a total renunciation of every speculation of my own.

I have, therefore, presented this bill authorizing the Secretary of State to officially recognize Estrada's government as the government of Nicaragua.

The following are extracts from a speech urging a return to a simpler mode of hair-dressing.

My proposition is reform. Not reform through new devices of labyrinths of intricate and endless puffs; not reform resulting in precise and unbecoming arrangements. It is simple reform sought in its natural course and in the spirit of reform. I propose, by removing all unnecessary rats and puffs, and by restoring the former natural and becoming arrangment of the hair, to give permanent satisfaction to both sexes, male and female. My idea is nothing more. Towering masses of hair supported by rats give ever the appearance of confusion. A simple becomingness of arrangement of hair, which is as easily seen at the first view, as rats are surely detected at last, is, let me say, of no mean force in judging the beauty of a girl.

. . . . . .

And finally you say, "At least we cannot manage without roughing our hair." To this I reply that gentle management is better than force. For the good effects of roughing are but temporary, for the hair soon falls. In the second place it is uncertain, for at times the hair refuses to be roughed. Thirdly, I must testify that I have had no favorable experience with roughing; and in the fourth place roughing impairs the very object which you think it improves, for it breaks and splits the hair, keeps it from growing and in attempts to remove tangles, great quantities are pulled out.

When the pupils had finished their study of "*L'Allegro*" and "*Il Penseroso*," they were asked to prepare two companion pieces—pictures—imitating Milton as closely as possible. Out of a class of thirty-five, half sent in good verses. The following is, perhaps, the best one. Though on a hackneyed subject, it seems to me rather remarkable in its fidelity to the model, and in its consistency of form and thought.

SPRING

Hence, Autumn drear and dismal,
Thou somber child of old age and decay,
In garb of leaden gray!
Hence to thy distant birthplace,—depths abysmal
Where no rays penetrate,
But darkness reigns supreme. There 'mid the shades
Of all on Earth that fades,
And blasted hopes and wishes unfulfilled,
And dreams untimely killed,
In that dark reign of horrors hold thy state!
But come, descend on airy wing,

Thou ever-joyous goddess, Spring,
Thou fairest child of Mother Earth,
Whom our great Mother, at a birth,
Bore to laughter-loving Joy,
When he came, a blithesome boy,
Scattering smiles and merriment,
Breathing peace and heart's content,
Putting Care's dull crew to flight,
Conquering all in youthful might—
Yet a boy; for, as have sung
The poets, Joy is ever young.
Blithe he came, with airy tread,
Sunbeams playing round his head;
'Neath his footstep flowers sprang;
O'er his head the wild birds sang.
And on that ever-dolorous day
When Selfishness drove him away,
Banished from Earth, with loving care
He left us thee, his daughter fair.
Then come, enchantress, goddess, queen!
Clad in a robe of softest green,
Broidered all with budding twig;
In thy hand a leafy sprig,
Wand of necromantic power,
Causing field and wood to flower,
Decking in a grassy gown
The wintry meadows sere and brown,
Painting blue the leaden sky
Teaching birds their melody,
Imparting to the lifeless earth
The magic of a second birth,
Come, and dancing, lead with thee
In jocund round thy daughters three!
First, April, clad in stainless white,
And in her hand a lily bright,
A maiden yet of tender years,
Half made of smiles and half of tears.
Then, somewhat older than her fellow,
Her sister May, in robe of yellow,
Who leads us all in captive train,
By fetters of a daisy-chain,
And like a Circe bids us sup
Her magic from a buttercup.
And last of all the virgin June,
In trailing gown of soft maroon,
In whose soft cheek the color flows
Brighter than the full-blown rose.
And, Spring, if I give honor due,
Grant that I may live with you,
And share those innocent delights
To which a life with you invites:
To rise while yet the dew of morn
Glistens pendent from the thorn,
And in the buttercup's bright chalice
Forms a draught fit for a palace,
Yet free to every feathered scamp
That roves the fields; and then to tramp
Across the dewy countryside,

And view from high the landscape wide;
The woods, of late so dark and grim,
Now budding forth in every limb
And forming to the entire scene
A waving background of dark green;
In front, the meadows daisy-starred,
And here and there by brooklets barred;
Off in the distance, mountains blue
And shining river end the view.
To hear the russet robin sing;
To see the oriole's hang-nest swing;
To smell the fragrance of the thyme;
To listen to the water's chime;
The chirp of nestling birds to hear,
And say within me, "Spring is here!"
These pleasures, fairest Springtime, give,
And I with thee will choose to live.

AUTUMN

Hence, drowsy, slothful Spring,
Dull sluggard born of Idleness and Sleep,
By Lethe's stagnant deep,
Where lies forgetfulness of everything!
Seek out the Lotus-land
Where sluggards eat and drowse and dully dream;
Or else thy native stream,
And drink oblivion to thy dullard soul,
And where its waters roll,
Such languid souls as love thy ways command!
But come,thou fairest nymph of all,
Whom some call Autumn, others Fall,
Thou sprightly nymph whom Summer bore
The elf Jack Frost in days of yore,
When he came, mischievous fellow!
Clad in motley red and yellow,
Painting with his magic brush,
On tree and creeper, brake and bush,
The leaves the verdant woodland through
In each myriad rainbow hue;
Curtaining the frosted glass,
With filmy veil of fairy lace;
Powdering gray the stubble rows,
Nipping sharp the ruddy nose;
Sportive with a thousand quips,
Laughter bubbling from his lips.
Thee gentle Summer to him bore,
Like him, but like thy mother more.
Come, frolic nymph—yet queenly, too—
In garb of iridescent hue,
Soft-shimmering with celestial gleam,
And flashing to each dancing beam
A thousand tints of wood and wold:
Now the chestnut's russet sheen,
Now autumn leaves' incarnadine,
And now the heaven's ethereal blue,
Yet all one comprehensive hue;
And in thy hand thy bounteous horn
Brimful with ripening fruit and corn,

The plenteous yield of hill and plain,
Orchard, and field of waving grain.
Come, and romping, lead with thee
In frolic round thy daughters three:
September first, the princess-maid
In gown of cloth-of-gold arrayed,
And bearing in her dainty hand
Of goldenrod a royal wand:
October next, in motley hue
Of scarlet, yellow, brown, and blue,
Crowned with a garland of bright leaves,
And in her hand the ripening sheaves,
And mellow apples, round and sleek,
Yet no whit redder than her cheek;
Then brisk November, in a gown
Full rich with glowing russet brown,
Her lap with auburn chestnuts stored,
(The furry squirrel's secret hoard.)
And, fairest Autumn, if I give
Due honor, grant that I may live
With thee and with thy daughters three,
In unreproved pleasures free:
To rise while yet the purple mist
Which all the landscape wide has kissed
Still hangs caressing o'er the ground,
And deadens every grating sound,
And, as it slowly lifts, to tread
Beneath the canopy o'erhead
Of gorgeous autumn leaves, and mark
The fragrance of the pine-trees dark;
The brush-tailed squirrel to espy,
And coax his slow advances shy,
Who coy, yet eager, forward darts,
And at the slightest movement starts,
Till, sniffing at the empty palm,
Away he whisks in swift alarm;
And thence emerging to the field,
To mark the wheat-field's golden yield,
The plumed ranks of waving corn,
Trees by their plenteous yield down-borne.
Then to the gridiron's sturdy strife,
Where, gayly hazardous of life,
The surging lines together sway
And mingle in tumultuous fray,
Till o'er their foes the victors roll
And sweep triumphant towards the goal,
While gallant pennants gayly flare,
And cheers and school-yells rend the air,
And fast the eager pulses race,
And voice and flashing eye keep pace.
Thence homeward to the festal board
With turkey and cranberry stored
And finish with our Maker's praise
Another of thy golden days.
These pleasures, fairest Autumn, give,
And I with thee will choose to live.

Heroic verse was again discussed in the fourth year. Some of the classes read Pope's *Rape of the Lock* for the first time.

Then the writing of heroic lines was assigned. In one class each pupil was asked to make a couplet characteristic in some way of a member of the class. Every pupil handed in a couplet, some rather bright. Next, at least twelve lines were required. There were only two pupils out of a class of thirty-six who could do nothing with this exercise. A clever bit, indeed, is the following from another class.

TO MISS McCOLM

O Lady Anne, pray lend a fav'ring ear,
And hearken to my tale of suff'ring drear.
I've struggled all night long, with might and main
I've toiled and worked, and suffered grievous pain,
But though the task has made me feel quite blue,
This, the result, I dedicate to you.
For thou, it was, who, in my dreadful plight,
Suggested that from Mother Goose, I write.
I 've done my best; the poor results thou'lt see.
But gracious lady dear, pray pity me,
And give a poor benighted one her due,
This is the only boon I ask of you.
P. S. O pardon me for writing "Lady Anne,"
But "Miss McColm" sounds too American
To use when one heroic verse would write,
O grant my prayer, and pardon Helen White.

JACK AND JILL (Revised)

The mighty quest of Jack, the direful spring
Of all his woes, O heav'nly Goddess, sing!
The mighty quest, which caused the youth to fall,
And suffer grievous pain and loudly bawl.
Declare, O Muse! in what ill-fated hour
Befell the doom, from what offended power?
The mother of the youth did vainly bail
But got no drop of water from her pail.
"Most noble Jack, and thou too, lovely Jill,
Now take this pail, and go to yonder hill,
And there do thou the mighty god implore
That he will water give, for we need more."
He heard her words, and with a mighty spring
He left the portal, whilst the maid did bring
The wooden pail, in which the gift to bear,
If from the fav'ring power, there came a share.
With eager steps, they went along their way,
And when they reached the hill, thus did they pray.
"O heav'nly one, pray lend a fav'ring ear
And give, most gracious pow'r, us water here.
In times gone past, thou'st aided Jack and Jill
O grant our prayer, if 't is thy sovereign will."
The prayer was heard, the fav'ring god attends,
And with his arm, his mighty bow, he bends.
An arrow flew, the earth was rent in twain,
The crystal waters flowed, and flowed again.
Then swift the youth and maiden filled their pail,
And turned their footsteps downward to the dale.
With joyful hearts, they went along the way.

(Between them did the bucket gently sway.)
Meanwhile high up in heav'n Jove's consort fair
Looked down with jealous eyes upon the pair.
And as they swiftly went their downward way,
Thus did she to the king of heaven pray.
"Almighty Jove, thou wieldest sovereign pow'r;
Cause yonder merry youth to rue the hour
When from my peacock's nest, the eggs he stole.
Pray, let him slip, and down this steep hill roll."
The father heard, and bent his awful head,
Called forth his winged messenger, and said,
"Son of Maia, wing thy way below,
Approach the hill from whence the waters flow,
Bring due mishap to yonder careless boy,
Let him be punished for his former joy."
He spoke, and turned his mighty head away,
While Maia's son to earth, sped on his way.
Invisible to them, the god did place
A stone right in their way, to stay their pace.
Now careless Jack approached with sprightly tread,
But tripped, and quickly rolled upon his head.
And little Jill, with mighty efforts brave
Did try, but fell, ere she the pail could save;
But quick recov'ring from this dreadful plight,
She ran, right swift of pace, with all her might,
And brought some mighty heroes to the hill
Where poor Jack lay, unconscious, white and still.
Him in their arms they bore, so limp and white,
And brought him to the city in this plight.
The kindly matrons gathered 'round the lad,
And wrung their hands and sighed, "Alas! too bad."
However 'mongst that mighty throng were some
Who, knowing what was best, said, "Take him home."
Then, toward his home, did they the boy bear,
And 'round his body wept and tore their hair.
At length their tears were stayed, they turned away,
And went, some back to work and some to play.
Thus ceased the tears that o'er his fall were shed,
And Jack quite calmly rested in his bed.

The final imitative exercise came after reading Lamb's *Essays of Elia*. The work was uniformly good throughout the classes. The following is representative.

A CHAPTER ON WRITING

I cannot write.

Mistake me not reader, nor imagine that I have grown up a child of neglect, uninstructed in the science of the three "r"s, or that I am utterly incapable of wielding the pen, that so indispensable a communicator of the thoughts, that mighty power which molds and sways the opinions of nations.

But when I state that I cannot write, I mean—I cannot write compositions. While my companions at school sit about me diligently writing, their thoughts growing into half a page, and two pages, I sit gnawing my pencil,—what shall I write? The subject in hand is one to which I have never given a thought, or if I have, where are these thoughts? They are gone, and I attempt in vain to recall them. A glance at my rapidly diminishing pencil warns me that the hour is quickly slipping by. I make

a bold beginning and jot down part of a long periodic sentence. Having done so, I consume many minutes more, deliberating how to complete this sentence which I have so rashly consigned to my paper.

When I sit down to write to my chum, my thoughts come thick and fast, my pen racing along to keep pace with the ever increasing ideas which I wish to communicate to her; but when I am assigned to write a letter to some imaginary grandmother, to be read and criticised by the teacher, my pen refuses to execute its task, and the letter emerges, an enumeration of cut and dried remarks strung together by an interminable series of "ands" and "howevers."

In what constant misery I am kept! When I am supposed to compose something humorous, my thoughts become most morose, and my brow becomes lined with gloomy reflections. Am I on the other hand to write a poem dealing with the heroic and the sublime, then the most foolish and ludicrous suggestions arise in my mind, so that I am incapable of retaining any feasible original plan I may have had.

But great is indeed my affliction when

> We are told in awful accents,
> That a sonnet we must write;
> And in lofty tone of Milton,
> Foolish thoughts of ours write.

I cannot imagine myself back in the days of Chaucer and invent a tale of chivalrous knighthood, nor can I present speeches and spin fine arguments on civil questions after the manner of Burke. My attempts at a Lamb's essay might cause poor Elia and his affectionate Bridget to shake their heads in dismay over their blue China teacups. I spend sleepless nights reflecting how to treat common-place subjects in imitation of *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*, and after a long search for a word to rhyme with summer, I at last hit upon the lucky suggestion of plumber, resulting in the following poetic couplet:

> The golden moon of balmy summer,
> Casts its beams upon the plumber.

I awake suddenly in the silence of the night chilled with horrible visions. I see the angry form of Milton beckoning and threatening with a massive key of iron. O dear reader, what are not the afflictions through which I must pass. Every holiday is darkened by gloomy apprehensions of what must be written ere they end. Every scene, every incident suggests itself as a subject for some dismal essay, and is rejected as not affording sufficient material. Each uncommon face in a street car may perhaps be used in a character sketch, or some distinguished looking young man may be turned into the hero of a short romance. This, in short is the thorny path to be beaten by the unfortunate mortal who has no talent, either "sentimentally" or "organically" for the gentle art of writing.

In conclusion I must repeat that the pupils gained much from these exercises in power of attack, in readiness of response, in keenness of appreciation. But the greatest good of all came in the stimulation of interest in the theme work. To all teachers who have never made such experiments we earnestly say, "Try."

REPORT ON THE HYGIENIC AND SANITARY CONDITION OF A PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING[1]

By W. E. McGown
From the Educational Laboratory, Cornell University

Through the courtesy of Supt. ———, the writer was permitted to undertake an examination of the hygienic and sanitary condition of the 'Central School' in ———. This examination, which was carried on under the direction of Professor Whipple of the Department of Education, Cornell University, embraced an inspection of the heating, ventilation, illumination, and sanitary appliances in the building. The present paper aims to render an account of the conditions that were found and to suggest a number of ways in which improvements could be made at relatively small expense.

The Building

The Central School, situated at the corner of ——— and ——— Sts., is one of the city's grade schools. It is a two-story, frame structure, built without any form of fire-proofing. Its general floor plan is the familiar one of a central corridor with class rooms on either side and stairways at both ends. From the second floor there are also two outside stairways which are designed to serve as supplementary exits in case of fire.

The Grounds and Site

The grounds are some three times the floor area of the building. In the rear there is an unobstructed space for play, but the grounds in other portions are fenced off by low barriers, and are apparently not available for play (at the time of this inspection the weather and soil conditions were such that the pupils could not use the grounds at all).

There are a number of large trees on the grounds. Several of these trees are so near the building that they interfere

[1] This report was prepared by Mr. McGown as an assignment in connection with advanced work in school hygiene. It was not intended for publication, but is reproduced in this *Journal*, at the suggestion of several persons, as an illustration of the kind of investigation that may be conducted with practical advantage by competent students of school hygiene. Readers may be interested to know that most of the improvements that the paper recommends were subsequently introduced by the Board of Education of the city in question. G. M. W.

seriously with the illumination of the classrooms. These trees need judicious trimming and several of them could be removed entirely to advantage.

Not far from the school and in the path of the prevailing winds is a gas plant, the odors of which are not infrequently very disagreeably noticeable. Whether the school was erected after the gas-plant or the gas-plant after the school, I have not discovered. In either event, the present situation constitutes a nuisance from the point of view of the hygiene of the school. If the present building is ever replaced by a new one, it would, in my opinion, be highly undesirable to use the same site again.

Heating and Ventilation

The building is heated by hot air furnaces and a simple gravity system, of a pattern that is now considered obsolete for schoolhouse heating. The warm air inlets are placed either in the floors or in the walls near the floors; in accordance with the best modern practice they should, of course, be placed in the side walls above the level of the 'breathing line.'

There is in each room an outlet flue for the conveyance of foul air into a central chimney near the middle of the building. This chimney was formerly used as a smoke-flue at a time when the building was heated by stoves. When furnace-heating was installed the chimney was converted, theoretically, into an aspirating chimney by connecting it with the foul air flues from the classrooms and by installing a stove at its base to furnish an upward current of air. When the building was inspected there was no fire in this stove; so far as could be determined there never has been any; at least the janitor was ignorant of its use. In consequence of this unfortunate neglect of a useful device, the outlet or foul air flues in the Central School might as well never have been introduced. Anemometer tests showed that not a particle of air was being withdrawn from the classrooms through the agency of the aspirating chimney. I would recommend that the janitor be instructed to maintain a fire in the chimney-heater and to make sure that all outlet flues were open and in active operation daily. The operation of this flue would cost but a negligible amount and would, presumably, facilitate the introduction into the classrooms of warm air from the furnace.

Ventilation tests are most satisfactorily conducted by the quantitative determination of the carbon dioxide of the air. Normal outdoor air contains 4 parts of carbon dioxide per 10,000; many hygienic experts place the limit for ideal or

first-class ventilation at 6 parts or 7 parts, but we may deem 10 parts, perhaps, a permissible limit for satisfactory or acceptable ventilation. The presence of from 10 to 20 parts of carbon dioxide per ten thousand indicates bad air, of from 20 to 40 parts, very bad air, and above 40 parts, extremely bad air.

Several classrooms in the Central School were tested with the Pettersson-Palmqvist apparatus for the determination of carbon dioxide. This instrument admits of a high degree of accuracy and yields direct readings in parts per ten thousand of CO_2. (The instrument is described in the Appendix of this report; the detailed results obtained by its use are also given there.) Our analyses showed that the carbon dioxide content in this school rises within a few minutes after the assembling of the pupils to 10 parts, and from this time until school is dismissed steadily increases to from 20 to 24 parts per ten thousand. In other words, the pupils in the Central School practically breathe air that would technically be ranked as 'bad' or 'very bad' throughout their school day. The ventilation system of this school does not ventilate, and the quantity of fresh air supplied falls far short of the minimal limit set by the school regulations of New York State (in the rules governing the construction of the new buildings). If the aspirating chimney were set in operation as previously recommended there is no doubt but the ventilation would be appreciably improved.

The *temperature* of the classrooms inspected was, on the whole, maintained within reasonable limits by opening windows as the need arose. In severe weather it would be impossible to control the temperature in this manner and the air in these rooms could not fail to be in worse condition, both as regards temperature and vitiation, than it was in the comparatively mild weather that prevailed when our tests were made.

There is no provision in this building for heating the halls and closets, although, as will be shown later, there is urgent need of some provision for such heating.

The *relative humidity* of the air in a number of classrooms was determined by means of a whirling wet-dry bulb thermometer (see Appendix). According to these tests, the relative humidity ranged from 20 to 30%, with an average of 24%. Since the normal outdoor humidity is not less than 60%, and since these tests were conducted in damp or rainy weather when the conditions were favorable for a high humidity indoors, it is evident that the air in the Central School is extremely dry. The effects of breathing this dry, vitiated air are well known to all medical and hygienic authorities;

in particular, pupils may be expected to develop chronic affections of the throat and lungs. Doubtless it is out of the question, in the present circumstances, to install humidifying apparatus in the Central School, but the conditions revealed in our tests may serve as a reminder of the desirability of making such an installation if a new building is constructed. Experts now compute the cost of proper humidification as approximately equal to an addition of 5% to the cost of heating,—an addition that will return hygienic benefits sufficient to justify its introduction.

Illumination

The rooms in the Central School are, in the main, of two sizes, 26′ x 24′ and 20′ x 30′. In general, the lighting arrangements are good. The ratio of glass to floor area is within the ratio 1 : 6 prescribed by experts. In the 2d grade, Room 1, however, the seating is wrongly placed, and the light comes from the back instead of from the left side, or from the left and back with preponderance of left light.

Though the building is thus adequately provided with window surface, the teachers, unfortunately, do not utilize this surface in such a manner as to secure adequate illumination. The following criticisms may be made.

(*a*) The windows, at the time of our visits, were sadly in need of cleaning; they all were covered with dust and dirt, so that the amount of light available was materially reduced.

(*b*) Several of the teachers failed to adjust the window-shades in accordance with the requirements of illumination. Shades that had been drawn in sunshiny weather were still pulled down on one of the darkest days of the year. In one instance a curtain had been broken for some time so that it could not be moved from before the window, and this defect had not been reported to the janitor or other responsible party.

(*c*) Some windows were filled with plants so large as to reduce the light by a considerable quantity. However desirable growing plants may be, they should not be allowed to interfere with the illumination of the classroom.

(*d*) In one or two rooms the seating capacity was not used to its full extent, yet desks in the best lighted row next the windows were unoccupied and pupils were seated in the darkest row.

(*e*) The degree of illumination could be measurably augmented by trimming all the trees in the school yard and removing some of them entirely, as previously suggested.

(*f*) The recent tests of vision of the pupils in the Central School, in the administration of which we were permitted

to assist, revealed a large percentage of visual defect. The seating of all pupils found defective in these tests should now be rearranged to bring the myopic children in the front rows and all other defective pupils into the best lighted desks next the windows.

Sanitary Appliances

In the Central School the toilet rooms are placed in a well or large shaft inside the building. They are surrounded on all sides, practically, by the classrooms. They receive a feeble illumination from sky-lights at the top of the well in which they are situated, and they are supposed to be ventilated by a number of swinging sash-windows at the top of the well. Each closet room opens into the common shaft directly, being screened from it simply by coarse wire netting.

It goes without saying that if closets are to be located inside the school building, elaborate precautions must be taken to avoid a nuisance. A prime requisite of school construction is that toilet rooms must receive direct illumination from the sun, must be amply warmed, and must be supplied with a continuous powerful draft of air for ventilation, presumably by a special system of aspirating chimneys or exhaust-fans. These well known principles of hygienic construction are all violated in the Central School. The sunlight never penetrates to the closet rooms; there is no source of heat; there is virtually no ventilation. As a consequence the stink of these closets is the first thing that greets the nose of the visitor, and the classrooms are all more or less permeated by vile odors from them. The closets are not kept clean. The deodorizer that is used only helps to advertise their presence. In the absence of sunlight, the best natural germicide and sterilizing agency, these closets must be kept scrupulously clean and must be supplied with generous ventilation.

Drinking cups. This school has been equipped with enamel sinks. It would not entail much expense to attach sanitary drinking founts to eliminate the danger that now exists from the use of the common drinking cup.[1]

[1] Professor Davison, of Lafayette College, recently placed a sterilized glass tumbler in a public school where it was used for nine days. When broken at the end of this time and subjected to bacteriological examination there were found not less than 100,000 bacteria per square inch of glass surface; the upper third of the glass was so thickly strewn with human cells scraped from the lips of the pupils that the head of a pin could not be touched to any spot on the glass without coming in contact with several of these bits of skin; the saliva, by running down on the inside of the glass, had carried countless cells and bacteria to the bottom.

The pupils not only drink from the same cup, but wipe

their hands and faces on the proverbial 'school towel.' There can scarcely be imagined a more satisfactory device for the spreading of trachoma and other infectious eye diseases.

Cleaning

In the Central School the wood floors are in a very poor condition; there are wide cracks between the boards; the boards themselves are rough and very difficult to clean. All the floors need renovating. If they were first given a thorough scrubbing with soap and warm water, then dried, scraped or planed, it is possible that a crack filler could be used to advantage. At least the cleaning and scraping should be followed with a skillful application of some standard oil dressing. If this is applied evenly and sparingly it will not prove a nuisance and will very considerably reduce the amount of floating dust in the schoolrooms.

The dust difficulty is at present aggravated by the inexcusable practice of the janitor, who sweeps the corridor floors during the school session, and thus stirs up millions of dust particles which permeate every room in the building. If the floors were oiled, as just suggested, swept in the afternoon at the close of each session, and if the desks and furniture were dusted in the morning before nine o'clock, the dust problem could be successfully handled, in so far as the construction and equipment of the building will permit.

School Furniture

The hygienic seating of pupils could be facilitated by placing in each classroom a limited number of adjustable desks. The present desks and chairs do not conform with modern hygienic prescriptions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The Central School is an old building on a poor site. As the best way of meeting the difficulties we have outlined would be to erect another building on a better site, we have no radical changes to suggest in the present structure. At the same time, it is realized that new buildings cannot always be had for the wish; they come but slowly, even when urgent need is apparent. On the assumption that the Central School will be continued in use, we venture to make a number of suggestions which we believe are of practical worth, and which can be put into operation with but a small outlay of money and attention. We believe that the improvements are well worth the outlay.

1. Trim the trees in and about the school yard.

2. Put the stove at the bottom of the aspirating chimney into condition for use, and instruct the janitor to maintain a fire therein whenever artificial heating is in use.

3. Instruct the janitor and the teachers to keep the outlet flues always open and clear.

4. Have the windows thoroughly cleaned, and instruct the janitor to clean them as often as is necessary.

5. Instruct teachers to use their best efforts to secure adequate illumination, especially by the intelligent management of the shades.

6. Allow no plants in the windows unless they can be placed there without appreciably reducing the illumination.

7. Seat pupils to secure optimal lighting; especially seat those with defective vision in the rows next the windows and bring myopic children into the front seats.

8. Rearrange the seating in 2d grade, Room 1, to bring the light from the left.

9. Insist that the janitor wash the closets and urinals daily with broom and hot water, and that at least twice a week some germicide be added to the water, *e. g.*, corrosive sublimate (1 to 2,000), or diluted muriatic acid might be employed for the urinals.

10. Install artificial lighting in each toilet room, so that at least enough light will be afforded to enable one to ensure the cleanliness of the appliances.

11. Arrange for the introduction of a supply of heat to each toilet room. For this purpose a warm air duct would be preferable to a steam coil, since the former would also assist in the ventilation of the rooms. In mild weather a number of inexpensive electric fans might be used to move the air in these rooms.

12. Install a fountain or 'jet' form of supply for drinking water and abolish the drinking cup.

13. Arrange some substitute for the present 'common towel.' The best suggestion is, perhaps, the use of a large number of small inexpensive drying cloths, like the individual towels used in Pullman cars.

14. Have the floors thoroughly renovated by systematic cleaning, scraping and crack-filling (if this is found feasible). During the vacation give the floors a good treatment with floor oil.

15. Insist that the janitor do no sweeping while school is in session, but that the entire building be swept daily after the afternoon session, be dusted daily before the morning session, and be washed weekly on Saturdays.

16. Place in each room a number (say 8 or 10, at most) of adjustable desks and see that teachers make proper use of them.

Appendix I

APPARATUS FOR THE DETERMINATION OF CARBON DIOXIDE

In his "Heating and Ventilating Buildings," Professor R. C. Carpenter gives the following description of the apparatus used in our tests.[1]

"The amount of carbon dioxide is so small that the most delicate methods are required in order to measure it. The writer gives here the only simple method which can be readily applied and which is said to be accurate to one part in one hundred thousand. This system of finding carbon dioxide was devised by Otto Pettersson and A. Palmqvist, two European chemists. The instrument consists of a measuring vessel, A, connected with a U-shaped burette, B, from which communication can be made by a small stop-cock, b, a manometer, fg, containing a graduated scale nearly horizontal; and two stop-cocks, f and g, by means of which communication can be made with the air. One side of the manometer, f, is in communication with the closed vessel, C, the other side can be put into communication with the measuring vessel, A. The burette, B, contains a saturated solution of caustic potash (KOH). The flask, E, contains mercury, and by raising it when the stop-cock, c, is open, the mercury will rise in the flask, A, and the air will be forced out. If the flask, E, be lowered, the mercury will flow from the measuring tube, and the amount of air entering A can be measured by the gradations. When the measuring tube, A, is full of air, the stop-cocks, c, b, f, and g being open, the position of the drop of liquid in the horizontal tube of the manometer is accurately read. The stop-cocks, c, b, f, and g are closed, that at b, opened, and the vessel, E, raised, driving the air out of the measuring tube, A, into the absorption burette, B. This operation of raising and lowering the flask, E, is repeated several times; it is then lowered, and the air is drawn over into the measuring burette; the cock, *a*, is then opened, and the vessel E manipulated until the reading on the horizontal scale agrees with that in the beginning of the test. The reading of the graduated tube A, gives directly the amount of carbon dioxide. The determinations are made with air of ordinary humidity and there is a slight correction due to this fact, which is not likely to equal, in any case, one part of carbon dioxide in one million parts of air."

A drop of water is kept on the surface of the mercury in the tube, *A*, n order to maintain the air to be measured at a uniform saturation. The iiquid used in the manometer is petroleum colored with azobenzol.

In the tests made at the Central School a device suggested and constructed by Dr. A. W. Browne, of the Department of Chemistry of Cornell University, was used to draw samples of air from three different strata of the rooms. For this purpose a system of capillary tubes was attached to a rigid board made fast to the frame of the instrument. The three capillary tubes opened at points 30 inches (approximately on the breathing line), six feet and eight feet, six inches, respectively, from the floor. By means of the stop-cocks, air could be drawn at will from any one of these levels.

A trial cock was also introduced between the tubes and the instrument in such a manner that air could be drawn from any level into the instrument, then ejected through the tail cock. By performing this pumping operation several times, a fair sample was secured from the level under determination. In operation, two tests were made in succession from each level.

[1] The lettering that follows refers to the cut of the instrument which has not been reproduced here.

Appendix II

CARBON DIOXIDE DETERMINATIONS

Inspection of the following table will show that the air of the Central School exceeds the permissible 8 parts per 10,000 of CO_2 in a very short time after the opening of the morning session, even in mild weather when one or more windows are open. Toward the end of the session the air is in obviously bad condition. The table also shows that the CO_2 is rapidly diffused throughout the room, since air drawn from three different levels and in two different 'stations' gives substantially the same results.

Table of Carbon Dioxide Determinations

(Parts per 10,000 parts of air.)

Room	Principal's	No. 3	No. 7	No. 8	No. 10	No. 11
Time	9.15–10.00	11.00–12.00	10.00–11.30	8.50–10.40	9.20–10.40	8.50–9.50
Date	Feb. 25	Mar. 3	Mar. 2	Mar. 1	Mar. 3	Feb. 26
a	10	14	10	9	19	7.5
	21	15	10	9.5	20.5	8.
b	22	15.5	10.5	10.	21.	8.
	23	15.	11.	10.	22.	9.
c	23.5	16.	12.	10.5	22.	9.
	24.	16.	11.	11.	23.	10.
d	24.	17.	11.5	11.	24.	10.5
	25.	17.	12.	12.	25.	10.5
e	26.	17.5	13.	10.5	25.	11.
	27.	18.	14.	11.	27.	11.
f	29.	18.	14.	12,	29.	12.
	29.	19.	14.5	12.	29.	11.5
Average	24.3	16.5	11.9	10.7	22.2	10.1

EXPLANATIONS AND REMARKS

a= stratum 30″ from floor near source of heat.
b= stratum 6′ from floor near source of heat.
c= stratum 8.5′ from floor near source of heat.
d= stratum 30″ from floor opposite source of heat.
e= stratum 6′ from floor opposite source of heat.
f= stratum 8.5′ from floor opposite source of heat.

The amount of window ventilation and *external* weather conditions during the tests are indicated as follows: the tem-

perature is that registered by the U. S. Weather Bureau at 10 A. M., the relative humidity is that registered at 8 A. M., the only time when such determination is made during the day. The out-door relative humidity would, of course, be somewhat lower at 10 A. M.: the indoor relative humidity ranged from 20% to 30%.

(1) Principal's room: Feb. 25. External temperature, 22. Relative humidity, 71. Three windows open, and two doors open into the hall. Air in the room offensively bad, CO_2 found from 19 to 29, average 24.3.

(2) Room No. 3. March 3. External temperature, 22. Relative humidity, 66. Two windows partially open. 'School room odor' could be detected. Determinations 14 to 19, average, 16.5.

(3) Room No. 7. March 2. External temperature, 40. Relative humidity, 85. Two windows open at the top. Determinations showed 10 to 14.5 parts CO_2, average, 12.

(4) Room No. 8. March 1. External temperature, 27. Relative humidity, 75. Three windows open at the top. Determinations, 9 to 12: average, 10.7.

(5) Room No. 10. March 3. External conditions as in (2). One window open. Marked odor. Determinations, 19 to 29, average, 22.2.

(6) Room No. 11. Feb. 26. External temperature, 22. Relative humidity, 66. Five windows open, also door into cloak room. Determinations, 7.5 to 12, average 10.1.

Appendix III

Apparatus for the determination of relative humidity

For the determination of the relative humidity of the schoolroom air at the Central School, we employed a whirling hygrometer manufactured by the Johnson Electric Service Company. This instrument consists of a pair of accurate thermometers, mounted side by side, and attached to a handle which allows them to be whirled freely. The bulb of one thermometer is covered with a cloth which is dampened with water. The instrument is whirled until the two readings have settled to constant amounts. On the basis of the difference between the reading of the wet bulb and of the dry bulb thermometer as related to the dry bulb temperature, the relative humidity is determined by reference to special tables prepared for this purpose.

Appendix IV

Apparatus for the determination of air velocity in flues

We quote from Professor Carpenter's book as follows:

"The velocity of air is measured directly by an instrument called an anemometer. The anemometer used for this purpose consists of a series of flat vanes attached to an axis and a series of dials. The revolution of the axis causes motion of the hands in proportion to the velocity of the air. The dial mechanism can be started or stopped by a trip arranged conveniently for the operator."

PHYSICAL TRAINING

By G. Stanley Hall

The cultivation of mind and body belongs together and the highest development of each involves that of the other. This the world since Plato has known by heart, and I never heard or read of any one, save ascetics, who doubted it. Nevertheless, we now confront the new and grave danger of separating brain and brawn. Headworkers sit, ride in trams and autos, while the best muscled class of men are the most unskilled, ignorant, wage earning, day laborers who lack all interest in their work because it is for others. The boss does what thinking is necessary and they only obey like dumb driven oxen. Never was so much labor merely mechanical and sometimes so monotonous that a brainless automaton might do it and machinery will soon do it. In the good old times headwork and handwork went together, but now, one class specializes in hand and another in headwork.

We see to-day, alas! the beginnings of this same division of labor in athletics. The manager hires the player, schedules him, has him sign rules, and he is fined or laid off if he does not obey. A captain, coach, or trainer dictates diet, sleep, regimen and perhaps lays down the moral code, so that the modern gladiator's part is not to reason why, but to do or die, till his heyday fades and he sinks from the brief glory of being the hero of the bleachers to the long evening twilight of a hasbeen and it may be to grow fat and logy with only the consolation prize of his memories, perhaps allowing himself indulgences that were denied him in his days of servitude; for the average athlete past his prime and out of the game under our system has peculiar temptations and weaknesses.

Among the Greek athletes the very best thing gained was the splendid spirit of freedom which is the most precious result which any and every kind of physical culture can give. These fashion setters of our art canons learned self-control and did not have to work under the control of others. Their body training was only the preparation for the culture of philosophy (as in the case of Plato, or Aristotle, whose lectures were given to those who could keep up with him walking),

[1]An Address given before the Physical Education Section of the N. E. A., July, 1910.

or it was introduction to the arts of the Muses. Milo acquired his strength because he had the wit to devise and the vigor to carry out all by himself a unique original system of training. Hercules waxed strong by performing great and useful public works for the benefit of the community.

Now, a brainy athlete will always best train himself by following an inner monitor which is always whispering to him "more," "enough," or "too much," and guides his regimen like the still small voice of conscience. Now, it is precisely this inner oracle, which is the Holy Spirit of physical training, that the coach or trainer stifles. He robs the athlete of the very best lessons of his discipline, viz., bodily self-guidance, the attainment of a physiological majority which comes with competence to care for one's bodily self. The supreme problem of the academic athlete is to solve his own personal hygienic problem, which is always and for every one an original investigation on which his success or failure in life will largely depend. His problem is how to get the very most and best out of his own physique. To this end, he must carefully observe himself in rest, in fatigue, when full or hungry, when growing lean or fat, and learn the great lesson of being the steward of his own body, developing power to resist sloth and appetite or overtraining in himself. This alone can give him true self knowledge and self control. At the very most, he should be only allowed access, when in doubt, to a medical advisor, who might now and then help him towards solving the problems that in the last analysis must always be his own. By this method, the physical improvement gained by training would not be lost; for a gain would be only a stimulus to a permanent higher plane of vitality and effectiveness. This would be a far harder but more acceptable offering to lay upon the great altar the world is now rearing to the sublime goddess Hygeia than mere beefiness, spurtiness, or a whole cabinet of trophies.

Most of us habitually live at about 60, 70, or perhaps 80 per cent. of our maximal health and strength. The athlete should get up to and stay at 90 or 100 per cent. of his best possible condition. Some invalids carry a handicap of weakness or perhaps chronic illness that would wear them down to an early grave did they not develop a veritable genius for personal hygiene, experimenting with and observing themselves, profiting by and treasuring every lesson of experience till they find their way to a code of regimen that would fit no one else, but does fit them so perfectly that they perhaps live on to a good old age like Kant and get an amazing quantity of work out of perhaps rather frail bodies. At the age of fifty or sixty, every intelligent man is either the best and most

philosophical physician to himself for all but acute diseases or accident or else he is an invalid. Now, the ideal athlete does this same thing only higher up among the altitudes on the scale of health. The studies of Irving Fisher seem to show that man could live on the average about fifteen years longer than he does by conforming to all the known laws of individual and social hygiene. Just so, he might live his life out fifteen per cent. higher up on the scale of health and efficiency; but to do so, he must become an expert, a professor in the art of keeping himself well. Others may suggest, inform and help in emergencies, but everybody's health problem is at root and core essentially his own. Here he must make original investigations and profit by them. To make a few weeks excursion up into the higher levels of health by special training and then to lapse back to lower levels, or to fall from grace, and to repeat this every athletic season for the college quadrennium, is of very doubtful value. The true athlete ought to be an aristocrat of health both born and bred, and the best test of success at the end of his college course would be not his records in field or track, his strength tests, his medals, cups and pennants, but what he could put down as having learned about how to keep to the very tip top of his condition, and he ought to be able to do this better than any other to the very end of his life.

Thus we may see that the average coach with his little kit of rules and his brief authority is to-day the chief enemy of athletic intelligence, if not indeed its stultifier and debaucher. He is as far from being truly professional as a cyclone revivalist is from being a professor of theology, or as a church debt-lifter is from an academic chair of finance.

My second point is that the college and high school faculties and athletic committees have been pedagogically both stupid and wasteful in their methods of dealing with athletics. They have been absorbed in the efforts to regulate from without when they should have utilized this enthusiasm for intellectual and moral culture. They have made no serious attempt to connect this zest with the highest culture as the ancient Greeks did and the modern Turners do to-day. The history of physical training and athletics is one of the most splendid in the annals of the race and is replete throughout with the purest and noblest humanism. The very descriptions of the great Pan-Hellenic games, where the victors received honors almost divine and whom sculptors and poets like Praxiteles and Pindar devoted their lives to immortalizing; the story of Jahn and the noble, political, patriotic enthusiasm for the fatherland which he and his followers developed—these bright historical pages abound in incidents that should glow

again in the heart of every athlete, where they would tend to sublimate muscular into moral power. Toward present day contests neither our psychologists, literary men, physiologists, physicians, moralists have done their duty; for this is not discharged by joining the rooting throng. Not reporters, but academic professors devoted to feeding these interests, long circuiting them on a higher plane, bringing to bear the vast and precious repertory of facts and lessons which could be absorbed—these are what are now needed. The great body of experimental data on the effects of practical training, use, disuse, fatigue, rest and every hygienic and dietary research in our laboratories that sheds light upon the muscle and nerve culture should be collated. One single spark of pedagogic genius here just now, to correlate all this material, kindle it and bring it into vital touch with the restless, aimless, surging, athletic calentures, would at once make a new situation everywhere in this field. What is there in this domain that these noble youths so eager for health and strength and victory must know and need to know? How shall we order it? Condense it, put it to fit their quick and eager, if undiscursive and unscholastic and impatient minds? This is the question that now groans and travails for answer through every gymnasium and in every athletic field and it is not creditable to our faculties that it is still unsolved. The data are so copious, so meaty, so pragmatic, but alas, still so scattered and ineffective! Such a compend as I am demanding would be a veritable Bible for athletes. It would instill honor, temperance, the simple life, the spirit of loyalty to larger wholes even than the alma mater. It would at the same time make training a fine art resting on a good body of science behind it. Young men are perhaps more easily inspired by a high spirit of honor than by any other of the great uplifting sentiments, and men in training are particularly susceptible to this education of the heart. All this the trainer kills, teaching only to win at any price. The literature of war and of chivalry itself affords no more brilliant instances of self-denial and self-sacrifice, of true heroism, of magnanimity to foes and the vanquished, of the gentlemanly great arts of self-imposed, personal virtue and chastity, for the greater glory of the larger group than can be found here, so that ethics could find here florid and glowing illustrations for about every virtue it teaches.

The ideal academic athlete, as I conceive him, ought by every token of psychophysic parallelism or interaction to be or to make himself just as much superior to the average in soul as he is in body, for otherwise he is more or less lopsided and monstrous. Magnanimity belongs with size and grasp of intellect, with strength and mental with physical agility,

endurance, grace, etc. The culture of each should keep pace with that of the other. Christologists, reacting from the old ascetic ideals, are beginning to conceive of Jesus as a man of great size, strength, power of sustained endeavor, as majesterial, magnetic and virile in his personality, as divine in his physique as in his psyche. They thus find belief in his mighty works far easier than when he was deemed feminine or a weakling, or a man of insignificant size or ugly form. So my ideal college athletes should be fit for artists' models, thoroughbred gentlemen, and should have what naturally belongs with this, a higher code of honor. Perhaps the time is nearer than we think when they will indeed found a new order of nobility with its own *esprit de corps*, its own *noblesse oblige*, etc. Who knows but in the near future of eugenics they may be progenitors of a higher type of man than the world has yet seen and take a unique and distinct step forward toward the kingdom of the superman? If Galton's dream of endowed wedlock and pensioned children of all the fit ever be realized, men like these ought to enter the contest for the first prize in this field; for those thus especially endowed by nature and nurture, eminent by heredity and training, have special duties to posterity, of whose interests they ought to be in a peculiar sense the guardians and promoters. To the strongest as to the bravest belong the fairest by nature's great law of affinity. These men should be nature's noblemen and their conduct ought to be ideal. They should set fashions in bearing, in deportment, be the true aristocrats in a republic where personality, character and merit should set copy for human behavior.

It is up to our faculties thus to sublimate physical into psychic excellence, to transmute crude physiological ore into the gold of character, to see to it that strength does not lapse to brutality, animality, or sensuality, to feel themselves charged with the responsibility that fitness for physical conflicts is only a propadeutic for fitting them to be winners in moral battles later, to turn the courage and prowess won on the athletic field against sin, corruption and ignorance, for the great victories of our age are won not by muscular but by moral stalwartness and aggressiveness.

This is indeed the very central and quintessential thing in education, and to say that we cannot do this is to confess that we do not know how truly to educate. Let us rather say with the greatest of modern ethical teachers that we *can* because we *must*, for duty is never impossible. It is hard, yes, but let us professors take courage and catch inspiration from our young barbarians at play and go into training for this great and difficult task.

Could not this section of this meeting select a committee to gather the resources from all the above sources and work out a culture curriculum of these things from the past to the present, from the fields of history, hygiene, ethics, eugenics and the rest that athletic interests crave and need, to the end of giving to the word *gymnasium* more of the meaning it had in Greece and Germany, and to reform athletics by beginning within the heart and mind of the athletes themselves, thus striving to open it a highway which nature intended to be always broad and well travelled, but which is now grown up and jungled, the way by which excellence of physique passes into that of psyche.

THE NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE CONFERENCE: ITS WORK AND ITS RELATIONS TO CHILD STUDY[1]

By G. Stanley Hall

Child study has now so many departments, medical, hygienic, criminological, legal, religious, pedagogic, linguistic, social and the rest and its literature is so vast, the academic chairs and journals and sciences devoted to it are so numerous that no one can master all its fields. Specialization is already well advanced. It has a great and growing influence upon education and the list of reforms in method, matter, buildings, hour plans, text-books and ideals that now stand to its credit, is a long and noble one. Indeed, it is not too much to-day, to say that in every educational problem he who tells us authoritatively what the nature of the child requires, speaks the final word. Nothing in the history of education has contributed so much to make teaching professional and scientific. Profound as all this influence has been, it has been from the start silent and spontaneous. Now, however, we are organizing a more active and aggressive campaign to extend the application of its results and its influence outside the school proper to the thousands of child welfare institutions which we have tried to classify into 90 species, of which the following ten are the genera, viz., institutions for defectives, delinquents, dependents, those that deal with health and disease, morals and religion, protection, recreation, sex, eugenics, and general. Our Child Welfare Conference which just held its second annual five day meeting aims to unite all these into a national organization in order to secure the same advantages of co-operation, avoidance of duplication, the closing of gaps, enhanced efficiency, etc., as the Associated Charities have gained by co-ordinating local relief work. Our programme is first local, to bring all child welfare agencies outside the school in each city together so that they may know each other's work, catch each other's spirit, profit by each other's experience and impress the community more strongly. We wish then to effect a state, and last of all, a national organization, or organizations, with perhaps a head

[1]Address given before the Child Study Section of the N. E. A., July, 1910.

or a central bureau at Washington, for the conservation of American childhood which is the most precious of all our national resources and indeed of all earthly treasures. This federal bureau ought ultimately to be represented in the President's Cabinet and rank with the departments of state, agriculture, the navy and the rest and should eventually include education as well as all the agencies connected with child labor, hygiene, relief, delinquency, juvenile courts and all the other scores of organized interests of the rising generation always including eugenics. The practical ends aimed at are the following.

First, every social worker and every head of every institution caring for dependent children and their helpers should have special training for their work. Child philanthropists, too, need to know children better and draw upon all this fund of paidology. The work of all these institutions could be better done and every dollar contributed by patrons would have enhanced value by training of this sort. There are no more devoted friends of children than they, but to the high virtue that prompts their work they should now add a science for the sake of the children, not to mention their own interests.

Second, from one to three per cent. of the children of the land, hundreds of thousands in number. who are defective, dependent or delinquent should be studied. We now spend nearly $100,000,000 yearly upon classes of the population, old and young, that are a fearful drag upon the advancement of civilization. If a new pestilence were to break out that did damage of this magnitude, we should turn every available agency to the work of investigating causes and cures and should not be content with merely ameliorating present conditions. This vast field of observation is now very inadequately utilized for the permanent lightening of this heavy national burden. Experts in every such institution should work together systematically to draw lessons from this field so ripe in harvest and where the scientific wastage is too incalculable. The end should be prevention even more than cure. Every child publicly cared for should be systematically tested, its hereditary and personal history laid under tribute for the good of others and for that of science. This work, too, is already well begun in certain favored localities.

Third, in every institution for the training of teachers, some special course should be given to inform them in order that they may get and keep in touch with every child welfare agency outside the school in their community. We urge, too, that all upper grade pupils be informed of the work for dependent, delinquent and defective classes in their community as part of their education for citizenship and also that every

teacher of child study and every pedagogical department in normal schools, colleges and universities conduct extension work and make systematic surveys of all child helping agencies about them with the double purpose to learn and to help. We have found it profitable to assign topics in this field for thesis work and also to organize a series of committees of citizens to advance local playgrounds, promote better probation work, improve the milk supply for babies during the fatal hot months, to promote school gardens, training for workers on dependency and neglect, school hygiene, theatres, festivals, recreations, etc. It is to this great and new task to which we students of children are now applying ourselves that we invite your good will and if possible, your active cooperation in your several fields of labor. We believe the time has come to unite on the one hand all experts in paidology and practical agencies, to put to work what we know and to utilize children aided in every way for our science which now has so much to say not only on juvenile vice and crime and pediatrics, on nursing, feeding and dress of infants and children, their contagious diseases, games, habituations, vocations, social activities, adolescence, the psychology of poverty, criminal legislation, the child's relation to nature and to the city, on arrested development, truancy, gymnasia, bathing, prostitution, story telling, but even has something new and great to say concerning wedlock and race suicide. So our third slogan is—teach this applied child study everywhere from the high grammar grades up, put it to work for the charities, as college and university extension work.

Let me now tab off a few of the specific contributions which the larger child study has made toward better knowledge and treatment of some of these classes, although each of the following points needs a chapter or an hour.

I. No one is qualified to deal with boys in groups who does not know and has not pondered the studies of the gang which consist of the unique and integral part of genetic social psychology. This, the judge of the juvenile court, the probation and truant officers, heads of boys' clubs, or adult improved or controlled organizations of boys for religious of moral and other ends and those interested in school and self-government should know by heart. A large fraction of all juvenile delinquencies is due to the gang spirit which is of course that of the savage tribe. The reformer here has succeeded in proportion as he knows enough to become a true member and leader of the gang, for even such organizations as the Junior Endeavorers, Knights of King Arthur, etc., are in boy language, members of God's gang, or of the church gang. Gang psychology is the master key to juvenile crime.

II. Purity workers of all kinds must know the genetic psychology of sex or they can never cope with the gigantic evil of vice of which this is the key. Would that I had time to point out the positive injury done by well-meaning ignorance here, the harm done by those who strive to help. Nowhere have our ideas undergone such sudden enlargement and transformation in recent years as in this domain concerning the age of greatest danger, the predisposing and active causes, modes of cure, the nature and consequences of error, etc. We can now detect several of the roots of sex aberration in the infant in arms and a group of others in the child before school age. We know, thanks to the Freud school, the peculiar and hitherto unsuspected vulnerability of the years from eight to ten. We can appreciate the great significance of physiological aids. We know from special studies something of the magnitude of this generally hidden evil in school and college, and our ideas of self-abuse and of gonorrhea have undergone great change, while the effects of the social evil and the methods of moral prophylaxis are now revealed in a new light. Here lie the roots of nearly all the psychoses of later life and of many of the elements that Emmanuelists and mind curists have reached. The time is at hand when these topics and eugenics will be taught in the schools, but here, if anywhere, every worker must have special training and should bear a certificate before being permitted to enter this field.

III. The nature of the transforming era of adolescence, as it is now understood, is changing our ideas and methods of education at this age in home, school and church and in all special and private institutions for exceptional youth. Over the door of every such institution should be written—Let him or her who knows not the laws and facts of adolescence enter here. It is in many respects the most plastic and vulnerable of all ages, easiest helped by those who know it and easiest harmed by those who know it not. How harmful the moral or physical trainer, or the Sunday School teacher of youth who does not understand it and what a blessing are those true shepherds who can penetrate to the secret soul of the budding girl or the boy in the awkward age?

IV. At least one per cent. or some 170,000 American children of school age are subnormal or in some way arrested, although only a small per cent. of these come into institutions. I need only refer to the clinical work for this class lately done by Wittmer at Philadelphia, Goddard at Vineland, Healey and Macmillan at Chicago, Chase and O'Connor at Clark, and others in this country. Their achievements constitute one of the most brilliant chapters of psychology applied

with the most beneficial practical results. Here we have an almost ideal relation. These children are being studied more thoroughly than any other class ever were and they are adding much to our knowledge so that they are at the same time material for research and are being helped themselves by being segregated in special classes or schools and given the special care they need. Standards of ability, physical and mental, are being established for each age, on which we can grade subnormality, and a wealth of data for heredity is also being slowly accumulated. Thus, it is no longer sufficient to herd and care for these unfortunates. Each such child is a class by himself and must be specifically studied by the expert methods now being evolved, and nowhere has pedagogic genius and inventiveness accomplished better results.

V. Again, take playgrounds, games and toys. How grossly ignorant and negligent we were a few years ago until various studies of childhood showed that in play, children both practise and train themselves for future vocations and what is still more important, are rehearsing many, if not most, of the practical activities and vocations of the race through its ancient phyletic history! So, in right play-teaching we are working in the very depths and not in the shallows of the soul. Thus we woke up to the fact that many city children do not know half a dozen of the scores or hundreds of plays and games they should and had no place to play in. We realized that if the boy without a playground did not make the man without the job, he was at any rate dwarfed and distorted, if not a half evolved being. The present magnificent playground movement is a direct product of the better knowledge of the nature and needs of the child. With what we are now learning of the psychology of toys, it is easy to predict a new dispensation impending in this field when play material shall come to its rights.

VI. The work of the Story Tellers League, library and other story telling represent a contemporary revival of the antique method of education which was universal, for once all education was story telling. Here pedagogical psychology has much to teach that would render this work more effective and intelligent concerning not only the history of the art from the Homeridæ down, the nature of tradition, the advantages of oral and ear over the later long-circuited tract of the eye that reads and the hand that writes, but its best and surest teachings concerning the nature of the story material and the kind of tale that knits up the very brain itself into a better organized unity. Concerning the most vital point of matter, the modern story teller is usually singularly and pathetically astray. While children do not want a tale with

a too direct or obvious moral, every story should bear essentially upon conduct and form sentiment. It should be an instrument and every story teller should be able to stand and answer what he expects to do and to accomplish with each tale. The school canon of stories should include only the best classics, standard which introduce the child into the very best things in Greek, mediæval and other material which have shaped the masterpieces of literature, the tales of Troy, of the Greek dramatists, of Reynard the Fox and animal legends, the Niebelungen and Arthuriad groups, the Wandering Jew, Bible, some of Shakespere, etc. Story tellers are too prone to strive for entertainment only and the content to amuse and have little idea of real edification or even what it means and here the natural corrective lies in the history of their art and in the better knowledge of the nature of childhood. Until this reform is effected, story telling will never take the place it deserves in our educational system.

VII. The Big Brother Movement is in great need of pedagogic psychogenetic explication. Its history and its motivation date back to Plato who held that it was a shame to any boy not to have an older mentor, hero inspirer and that it was a disgrace to a young man not to make himself a special ideal or spiritual father of a younger boy. This principle has a long history from the apprenticeship to the fatherland to apprenticeship to a trade. It has other outcrops in a system of the personal advisers lately in use in many high schools and colleges of this country, in the ancient method of fagging, in initiation, in the control and hazing of freshmen and all the manifold monitorial care of younger by older children and youth. Indeed, this is one of the ideal types of friendship and prompts the mentor to always be at his best as a pattern-setter to his ward. As a godfather or guardian, or quasi or supplementary parent to younger men or women, older youth are themselves given great and new reinforcements to mental and moral progress.

VIII. At the opposite extreme, we have the psychology of orphans which shows what fatherhood and motherhood mean by their loss, and here belong sad lessons of parental cruelty and abuse, also the effects of disharmony between the parents and divorce, also the effects of institutionalization compared with the placing out system. Defective parenthood has many outcrops from inability and unwillingness to nurse which is absolutely necessary to complete motherhood and the failure to do which always involves one or more parental defects to the problem of the duties of unwed mothers toward their children and the problem of foundling asylums with their fearful mortality. Shall we rehabilitate these un-

fortunate mothers at the expense of their children, or shall we teach them to face the shame, retain their children and develop them and themselves? Shall our agency content itself with trying to secure marriage or support from the fathers? Upon all these problems genetic psychology has distinct new light to shed which will make every agency here more effective.

This list of things genetic psychology is now able and willing to do for child workers might be considerably extended were there time and this survey is of course extremely inadequate.

But let me in closing turn yet more briefly and glance at the challenging questions now put up to the psychologist by the practical workers in fields where we have more to learn from them than to teach them, to some of which problems we are still, though not to our credit, rather dumb. Here it behooves us to listen, ponder, go to work and feel ourselves put on our mettle and more or less at fault till we can say some authoritative word. For instance, how shall we treat young children in reformatories who have gone wrong and are so prone to relapse to vice as soon as they get out? Our present methods are inadequate and radical reconstructions are now needed for this very unique class to whose nature and needs we can reason from another class. We want to make these studies and to send our experts to these institutions. Again how shall we balance up the pros and cons between these who would raise the age of consent and those who deem it already in many places too high? Once more, child labor has its advantages as well as its abuses. How shall we foot up this account for different industries, ages, communities, social classes, etc.? Again, what shall we do for high grade imbecile girls who can just support themselves outside institutions but are prone to be the victims of scoundrels and mothers of human spawn of degenerates? Shall we keep them always sequestered or tubo-ligature them and let them loose, or what? And the same in modified terms for young male imbeciles of this grade. Again, how can we reconstruct the juvenile court, the success of which has at present organized seems now hanging in the balance, for it is in most places too much like an adult tribunal with sworn witnesses, publicity, jury, habeas corpus, appeal, when it should be based on pure equity principles and so organized that it can work well as a system and is still dependent on the personality of the judge who of course ought to be an ideal father for all the delinquent boys in his bailiwick, although this requires a supply of genius which we cannot rely upon. Again, how can we eliminate the evils of the placing out system which has spread so fast and far that, although statistical data concerning its success are lack-

ing we are beginning to hear serious reports of its evils in the way of spreading moral infection and of manifold bad relations between adopted and natural children? What are the facts about the appalling mortality and morbidity of foundling asylums and how can these be reduced? How can we extend the educative influence of moving pictures which have greater pedagogic possibilities than any invention since printing and how can we reduce the present dangers to eyes and morals? Such questions are legion and I must close. Here child psychology has a vast and to a great extent newly opened field for applying what it knows and for learning more, and here all child helpers can greatly increase the intelligence and the efficacy of their work by coming in contact with the rich store of facts and principles for which this section stands and which we in a sense hold in trust as its custodians. Here we must have a new and vital bond between knowing and doing, for the two in many fields are yet sadly isolated. The National Child Welfare Conference is a forum where genetic psychologists work for the exceptional child, get together and put mutual questions, report results and pool their knowledge for mutual benefit. Our motto always is that the cause of the child is the most precious of all the world's causes because it controls the future.

A BOY'S EXPOSITION

By J. E. W. Wallin
The New Jersey State Village for Epileptics at Skillman

A local boy's exposition was held in the Grays' Armory, in Cleveland, Ohio, April 29 and 30th. Over 2,000 exhibits were on display, and were viewed by about 6,000 visitors. The exposition represents the outgrowth of similar earlier attempts upon a small scale by boys belonging to various clubs and associations in the city, and proved so successful that plans are already being made to repeat it upon a still larger scale next year during an entire week. Any boy in the city less than nineteen years of age was eligible to partake, after procuring a certificate at a nominal fee of ten cents. The exposition comprised five divisions.

The first division was devoted to *industry*, and included exhibits in carpentry, wood turning and carving, metal work and forging, electrical apparatus, mechanical, architectural and marine drawings, printing, and arts and crafts. No less than eighteen sets of wireless telegraph instruments, all the result of juvenile workmanship and ingenuity, were on exhibition, and the boy inventors were on hand to give demonstrations of the superior qualities of their apparatus. A "wizard designer," constructed by a boy of thirteen, was capable of making 140 different designs, and was a great help to the inventor in his school work in drawing. A wireless station, fashioned after four months of labor by a sixteen-year-old boy, demonstrated the inventive genius of the juvenile mind by transmitting the message: "The Cleveland Boys' Exposition, Long May it Live." In this department aeroplanes of various types were in evidence, as well as ice-boats, lamps, yachts, motor cycles, book, tie, cup and saucer, and coat racks, broom holders, sleeve boards, tables, stools, Dutch dolls, picture frames, amber carving, burnt wood, burnt plaque, hammered brass, a model house, a wooden chain six inches long whittled out of a solid block of wood, an influence machine, etc., etc.

The division of *art* consisted of oil, water color and china painting, clay and putty modeling, charcoal and ink drawing, posters, cartoons, and photography. Some of the cartoons and posters on exhibition would reflect credit on many of our veteran newspaper cartoonists and ad writers. One of

the prize cartoons was "Roosevelt Returning." Other cartoons represented the poor man prostrate at the foot of his modern overlord (the trust), local politicians and baseball players, etc.

In the division of *collections* were shown stamps, coins, mounted buttons, and natural history specimens; and in the division of *pets*, ponies, dogs, rabbits, guinea pigs, parrots, and pigeons. Among these pets could be seen Buff Pekin, Golden Seabright, Yellow Pile, black, red and gray Duck Wing bantams, Belgian hares, black, yellow, red and white dragoon pigeons, homer pigeons, poodles, setters and terriers of various breeds.

Finally a series of *contests* added zest to the fair. Competitive tests, eligibility to which was often determined by preliminary competitions, were conducted in music, literature, oratory, costuming and gymnastics. In the musical contests there were 160 entries. The contests covered solo and duet piano work, cornet and violin playing, playing a violin made out of a cigar box and broomstick, whistling solos, glee club and orchestra work. In the oratorical contest there were nine entrants, three of whom were selected in preliminary trials. The ranking was determined by the manner of delivery, platform appearance, and ease and effectiveness as a public speaker. Scores of manuscripts were received in the short story contest. The stories were limited to 1,000 words, and only original contributions were accepted. The gymnastic contests were participated in by boys from a boys' club of the Y. M. C. A., from the Socialer Turnverein and the Council Educational Alliance, and a typewriter contest included both students' and amateur divisions. An Indian wigwam, cowboys with lariats, and Indians in warpaint, and a circus ring, added a circus aspect to the exposition.

Three grades of prizes were awarded the winners of the honors in the contests as well as in the exhibits, namely: blue, red and white ribbons, with the grade of the prize and the official seal embossed in gold. These were designed by a sixteen-year-old boy.

Such in brief outline was this exposition, arranged for, and participated in, by boys—an event that deserves to be chronicled because it represents, I believe, one of the first, if not actually the first, expositions of the sort on record. Fifteen or twenty years ago it was not unusual for the public schools of our smaller towns and villages to arrange somewhat similar exhibitions for all the grades at the end of the school year, but the practice has fallen into desuetude, save for the displays on a small scale which are now so common in large and small school systems in the special fields of the school

arts: writing, drawing, manual training, domestic science, raffia and kindergarten work, etc.; and save for the specially selected and ultra-superlative school displays sent to state and national fairs and expositions. Yet in this day of the urbanization and centralization of our population in industrial centres there is need of a mechanism to help restore those conditions which prevailed when, under primitive rural conditions, the family was the economic unit, the centre of productive labor and inventive enterprise, in which all its members were co-operating forces. The child under those conditions was of service in the home; the boy got his manual training in the family woodpile, his carpentry in the barnyard, his iron work in the repair house; and the girl received her domestic science in the family kitchen, at the family work basket and sewing machine. The child was an economic asset under those conditions, and a portion of his leisure moments was, therefore, turned to productive account. Modern industrialism has changed all this for the city child. The factory has supplemented the home as the productive and economic centre, in consequence of which the supplies of the home are now made by specialized labor in specialized centres of production instead of in the home. Accordingly the services of the child are no longer in demand in the industrialized home of to-day. He must now get the training which the home formerly supplied in the schools in manual training, domestic science and such courses, or do without this training before he takes his place in the factory. The child of the city needs to be socialized in these basic occupational activities of his fathers, of which he has been robbed by our modern system of industrialism. And he needs to be individuated for the higher creative work of the world as only he can become individuated by participation in productive and creative activities while he is yet in the enjoyment of the plasticity and spontaneous creativeness of youth.

A children's exposition, for all the girls and boys of an entire city, irrespective of school, club, church or other affiliations, will prove a boon to the modern child, relieving the child of some of the natural handicaps that inhere in our present economic system, and diverting many misdirected juvenile efforts into channels of valuable creative achievement. To interest boys and girls in laudable enterprises which appeal to the youthful imagination, to induce them to set to work upon some form of creative work, will often be tantamount to rescuing them from lives of aimless drifting, idleness, slumming, and the frequenting of the various questionable "hangouts" and resorts which everywhere abound,

and which all too frequently supply just the conditions which have given us an army of child wrecks and made the juvenile court an indispensable part of the city government. These expositions should prove a powerful stimulus to inventive effort and productive accomplishment during the years of life when the mind is most impressionable, and when the modifications wrought in the cortical neurones will leave the most permanent traces and promise the richest rewards in subsequent years. A visit to the exposition will reveal unsuspected possibilities and latent powers, or fire the ambition of many a child to put forth his or her best efforts in a healthy desire to excel in the useful arts and crafts, or in some object or contrivance which will be able to attract attention and commendation because it embodies a vital idea or fulfills some felt need in the environment. These youthful creations will thus form a natural transition to the type of work which the child must do in the adult environment. The child will learn early in life that work to bring reward must eventuate in products which supply some felt need, which possess some intrinsic value. An attitude of mind is thus engendered which will prove of priceless value later, and a specialized skill by which to meet life situations is being developed by practice, albeit playful and amateurish, in fields which have identical elements with the diversified industries, arts and professions of later life. The child is getting surely introduced into the adult occupations and standards by child creations whose pertinency and intrinsic merit will be gaged by the standards of competitive contest.

At the same time, the youth is directing attention to his own world, his own ideas, interests and desires. He is inviting the attention of the adult world to an exposition of his own making, which he has striven to make of such a character that he need offer no apology in bidding for adult patronage. He will come to realize that youth is not a vacuum which nature has ruthlessly thrust between infancy and adulthood, barren of accomplishment, or a period for the sowing of wild oats, but the spring time in which must germinate the ripened fruits of the autumn of life. It will be a gain to disabuse the adult mind that the only expositions that have a place in modern life are those made by adults for adults. It will be a gain for civilization to encourage the children's exposition idea, by focusing the attention of the child and the adult upon the juvenile world of achievement as a source of independent values. It will be especially fortunate to provide a vital stimulus to the inventive genius of girls, which has been rather barren of results in the past but which will probably flourish under proper stimu-

lation. The public schools have already done much in the past to stimulate spontaneous effort, initiative, and invention on the part of the child through the institution of exhibitions in the school arts and crafts. The children's exposition should do for the city at large upon a more pretentious scale what the schools, the distinctive institution for children, have done in their restricted spheres.

TAKING A DARE

By Genevieve Boland

The expression "I dare you" is one frequently heard among children between the ages of eight and fifteen, particularly among boys. What child does not remember the stinging rebuke and incentive to action found in the expression, "You're afraid, I dare you to do it!" The fear of being called a coward and the endeavor to stand on a footing of equality with one's companions have led at times to danger and accidents. Young children do not fully understand the meaning of the expression and without being cognizant of any danger involved take a dare, fear of others and the attempt to imitate leading them on. Older children are aware of the physical or moral harm, but pride and fear conquer them. The quality of being very daring is considered by boys, and frequently by girls, a commendable one. A girl of eighteen writes: "I have always been fond of taking dares and am yet. When I was about eleven years old, my teacher told me that I was the most daring scholar in the room. It has often gotten me into serious trouble, but strange to say it never had much effect upon me. When I was quite small I always thought a person who would n't take a dare was a coward, and years ago I made a resolution never to be one and have kept it pretty well." Again, a boy of sixteen says, "When I was between six and nine there was nothing I enjoyed more than taking a dare or daring others."

Terman found in his study of the psychology and pedagogy of leadership that among other things leaders were noted for being more daring. In Dr. Hall and Dr. Smith's study of taking a dare it is adjudged to be a dangerous and perverted form of the showing-off instinct. The motivating impulse seemed to be not a real exhibition of courage even of the physical sort, but a desire to avoid the accusation of cowardice. Where no apparent danger is involved the taking of a dare seems to be an avenue for the outpouring of some of the restless energy of childhood. It, indeed, at times becomes a mode of play in which a desire for excitement may be gratified, as in jumping from a haymow, but the effect and influence are in the wrong direction as the fear of being called a coward may rankle in the child's mind often causing him to do that which he knows is not right.

The impulse to motor activity, always the predominating factor in taking a dare, is always accompanied by possible physical danger, moral physical harm being seldom considered, while pride in one's standing among one's mates runs through all acts and all ages. For this reason the boy of five will take a dare as quickly as the boy of ten or twelve.

The data from which this study was made were received from Miss Williams of the New Jersey Normal School. In all 191 cases, 38 of boys, 153 of girls, were reported. As only about one-fifth of the cases were from boys, a comparison can hardly be drawn as to whether boys or girls are the more daring. In walking in deep water, skating on thin ice or ice covered with water, eating such things as mud pies, green apples, raw potatoes, in jumping from haymows, ladders, beams, etc., the girls as well as the boys are led to take the dare.

The age of ten is the time when dare-taking, according to this material, reaches its climax. It starts at four, goes up with a sudden bound at six, continuing to rise until eight with the girls. Then the curves for both boys and girls drop at nine, then take a leap at ten, immediately falling back almost to the level at nine and then steadily decreasing with a slight upward curve for the girls at fourteen and the boys at sixteen. At eighteen there is a slight upward curve for the girls and at twenty for the boys. Adult cases were reported, one of a man of twenty-two who was dared to wear his father's panama hat and carry his cane to a concert; the other of a man of thirty-eight who, dared by his niece, ran across the railroad tracks before an approaching train. The same desire not to be thought cowardly is evident in both, although the latter case shows a weak character. I presume we may say, certainly in the latter case, if not in the former, "*cherchez la femme.*"

Dares may be roughly classified as of three sorts, physical, moral and social; or as those which may result in personal danger; those which may court danger or ill feeling from others, and those involving ridicule. Some dares may be included under two of these heads and some under all three, one being predominant, the other two secondary consequences. The fear of physical ill, or of ridicule, or of being thought weak and cowardly, are restraints continuously set at defiance.

(1) Of the dares involving physical danger jumping is the most prominent. Anything from the front steps of a porch to the second story of a mill, even from a bridge into the water below served as an outlet for bringing into play this desire for activity. The instinct to climb and then jump is given vent in climbing trees and jumping, climbing beams and jumping into the hay. Older children perform the feat and then

dare the younger to try the same; boys find particular pleasure in daring the girls to imitate their supposed courage and bravery. From six up to sixteen jumping dares are frequently taken, and especially at the ages of six and eight. The following are some of the typical cases.

F. (6). When I was about 5 yrs, old my brother dared me to jump from the porch to the ground, which was a considerable distance. This I was very much afraid to do but finally I gathered up the courage and jumped.

F. (8). When I was 8 I was once dared to jump off the church steps. The little girl told me she double dared me which meant she would do it after me. I did not want to seem babyish, so did it, not only once but three or four times in succession.

M. (10). Frank was dared to climb to the top of an electric pole. He got half way up and then came down again.

F. (7). When I was about 7 years old I remember how two of my playmates and myself used to dare each other to jump off a little house about 4 ft. high.

F. (11). Clara, aged 11 years, was dared to climb a tree and jump down. She did it and sprained her wrist. After that she refused all dares.

F. (12). When I was about 12 years old a boy who lived near us dared me to climb a shed roof and jump from it. I did it and fell on my wrist and sprained it very badly.

M. (12). One day a crowd of boys and girls were in the barn when some one suggested jumping out of the hay loft. One of the boys jumped, but I was afraid. Then one of the girls jumped out and when she landed, dared me to follow. I jumped simply because I did not want to be beaten by a girl.

M. (12). One day I was swimming in the canal near a small foot bridge which was, perhaps, 15 ft. above the water. One of the boys dared me to dive from the bridge, but I was afraid to do it. He then dared me to jump from the bridge. I hasitated, but finally said if one of the other boys would jump I would. The other boy jumped and I was still afraid. I stood there for a moment, shut my eyes and jumped. The only feeling I remember is that the longer I stood looking the greater seemed the distance.

F. (9) When I was perhaps 8 or 9, a favorite game was to dare a crowd to jump from a wall. We tried to see who could jump from the highest part of the wall.

M. (16). One day at the close of work a fellow workman dared me to go to the bridge and jump into the water with my clothes on. I accepted the dare and jumped with him.

This instinct of climbing and jumping, which begins early, is thought by some to date back to our early ancestors who climbed the trees and leaped from limb to limb. However this may be, it seems to be deep-rooted and fundamental. And the desire not to be outdone becomes more prominent the older the boy or girl.

(2) As jumping from a height involves personal danger, so also does walking in the water and skating on thin ice. To walk through mud puddles, especially with shoes and stockings on, seems to be quite daring to young children, es-

pecially as they seem to be quite aware that it is wrong. In skating on thin ice the danger is known, but the apparent desire to appear brave and show off checks any fear of personal harm.

F. When I was about 7 years old I was dared to jump from a row boat into the river. I had on a new dress and, of course, I refused to do it. My brother said, "Well, you are a baby; I would n't have thought you were such a coward." My anger was aroused and before any one knew it I had jumped into the river and was struggling in the water.

F. When I was about 8, a crowd of us used to gather on a very muddy street and dare each other to run across in the mud just in front of an advancing horse.

F. A playmate once dared me to stand in a puddle of muddy water. I had on new shoes but I took the dare.

F. I remember many instances of being dared to disobey my parents wishes. When I was 10 years old I was forbidden to jump the stones in the river on the way to school. Very often my companions would say to me: "I dare you to jump the stones this morning." I often took the dare.

F. I remember playing the game of dare. One would take the lead and the others follow. One dare was to walk out to the end of a dock, on some places of which the water came over the boards. For some time I would not do it, but one day growing tired of being dared I walked to the end of the dock.

M. Eddie was not allowed to go to the creek to skate. One day the creek was the only sheet of water that was frozen, so Eddie and a lot of boys went to look at it. They made preparations for skating and dared Eddie to go with them. He hesitated but they double dared him. This time he accepted.

M. When Dean was 10 years old he was dared to cross a lake where the ice had begun to melt. He did so and was almost drowned.

M. Another boy and I were bathing in a small pond. We were seeing how many times we could cross. I became tired and stopped when my companions dared me to go again. At first I would not but as they kept daring me I started. About midway I became tired and nearly lost my life.

F. When I was 13 years, I was dared to walk out to the end of a pier extending into the water for a mile. It was only for the use of trains and was very old. I crept out and back on the ties, the wind blowing very hard and I was very glad to get on shore again.

M. A number of young people were skating on a lake which was very deep. The ice became unsafe and when a place was found where it would bend it was fun for the boys to see who could cross it last. One place had become very much broken when one fellow said: "I'll dare any one to go across the bend with me again." One fearless young fellow said: "I'll take you up, come on." The one that took the dare fell in and nearly lost his life.

In cases where walking in muddy water and skating are involved, the question of right and wrong and disobedience is an equal factor with physical danger. In skating particularly it is a question of testing courage in the face of danger, and the dare is taken because there is the insinuation of cowardice. The characterization of mankind as expressed by the savage to Sir Samuel White Baker, the scientist, might

apply here. "Most men," said the barbarian, "are bad. The good men are weak. They are good because they are not strong enough to be bad." In skating on thin ice it usually is the strong one who takes the dare.

The dare of riding a horse is always taken with the knowledge that harm may result, but the possible chance of escape is counted on. The sense of risk appeals to the child who must satisfy his curiosity by experience.

F. (12). My brother dared me to ride a horse without bridle or saddle on him and I rode the horse.

F. (00). My uncle who has a home in the country bought a frisky pony for his children. One day my cousin dared me to get on the pony's back and ride around the lawn. While I was afraid of the animal I did not want any one to know it so I took the dare and got quite a shaking up.

F. (10). My friend who lives an a large farm has a gentle horse to ride. One day we went to get the horse for a ride and my friend's brother, a boy about 14, put the bridle on another horse and dared me to ride it. I knew the horse was not so gentle as the other one but nevertheless I said I would ride it. I was helped to mount it and after going several rounds was glad to get off.

F. When I was small my mother forbade me to swing on the back of my father's carriage as our horse was fractious and she was afraid I would get hurt. I would see my brother do it and I remember doing it every chance I got.

Direct disobedience is seen in this last case while desire to be thought brave and fear of ridicule have been strong enough to overcome the fear of the horse. This primary fear and instinct of self-preservation give way before the more complex social fear.

(3) Standing on the car tracks when a car is approaching or crossing the track when a train is coming are certainly ways of tempting danger and examples of extreme foolhardiness. Here we have the case of a man of 38 crossing before an approaching train because he was dared to do so by a girl. This is certainly an example of foolishness verging almost on insanity or mental defect. The other data concerning acts performed by children savor of a desire for excitement and the experience of a new sensation.

Girl. (8). When I was about 8 years old, a little schoolmate of mine dared me to stand on the track when a trolley car was coming along. I stood there although very much frightened until the motorman yelled at me.

F. (12). I was dared by my playmates to run across the street when a passing car was close to me. I did so and got to the other side of the street.

M. (13). Harry and George placed their ears to the railroad track to listen to the approaching train. When the train came in sight they dared each other to see which could stay the longer. Harry did and would have been killed had not another fellow pulled him off.

Almost as foolhardy are the dares to put one's hand in a candle flame, in hot starch, and the like. The knowledge

that one will be burnt is overcome by fear of ridicule and a false idea of bravery. Only four instances of this kind were reported; but they seem to be typical examples.

F. (8). When I was 8 years old my sister dared me to put my hand in boiling starch. I took the dare and had a scalded hand for a week.

M. (9). A boy of 9 dared by another boy to take a burning brand from a bonfire. He spit upon his hands, did it and when burned was very angry.

F. (10). Helen aged 12, dared Marion aged 10, to take a tin cup from the heap of ashes of a bonfire.

F. (11). Girl aged 11, dared to pass hand through a candle flame. Did so without burning it.

Fear of the dark, in which there is a vivid and persistent representation of possible physical harm is overcome by the moral fear of being thought weak and the social fear of ridicule. Darkness causes an instinctive fear in children which, if worked upon, often persists to adult age, where it may develop into a defect. A number of reports concern dares to encounter darkness.

F. (7). Agatha's aunt dared her to go up stairs to get a shawl which was in a dark room. Agatha was afraid but went up and got the shawl.

F. (9). A number of girls were playing in an alley which went from one street to the other and had several barns and an undertaking establishment on it. Girls dared Edna to go through when it was dark. She was afraid but took the dare, went through and returned with a feeling of approbation.

F. (11). I was dared by my playmates to walk slowly around one of their houses alone when it was dark. I started bravely, but when the corner of the house hid my friends from view I began to feel very uncomfortable. It seemed to get darker every minute. I was sure there were mysterious forms in every bush lurking there for my destruction. I heard ghost-like steps pursuing me; I dared not look around but with my eyes on the ground kept a slow, steady pace until the deed was accomplished.

F. (8). Had great fear of the dark. One evening brother said: "Elsie, I dare you to go up in the attic alone without a light." She hesitated, but disliking the idea of not being able to take up the dare, conquered the fear of the dark and went.

F. (14). Dared to walk through a cemetery at night. Was afraid but would not show it and walked through.

F. (8). Dared my brother to walk through a dark wood. Refused the dare but the next night sneaked out of the house and walked through the wood, then told brother.

The last example tends to show how a dare may exert an influence which might cause serious results both physically, mentally and morally either for good or for bad.

Other dares, which do not come under a definite classification, show the same defiance of physical harm resulting from fear of ridicule or a desire for mastery.

F. (10). Dared to ride bicycle without having hands on handle-bars. Did so, fell off and broke her arm.

M. (12). To creep under all the beds in the house.

M. (11). To wrestle with another boy. Did so, broke his arm.
F. (10). To walk along edge of tin roof where she had been forbidden to go. Fell off, sprained her wrist.
F. (6) Dared by brother to lay her head on fly paper. Did so and was obliged to have curls cut off.
F. (12). To roll down railroad bank covered with snow.
F. (18). To walk through a field where large cow was kept. Disliked to be dared, but took the dare and could not speak when she came out of the field.
F. (7). To pick up a worm.
F. (7). To pick up a caterpillar.

(7) Jumping rope up to 100 is not only a game, but it furnishes the occasion for a dare which is indulged in particularly by girls. Though it is realized that harm may come from prolonged jumping the desire to show one's ability is prominent, in fact the attempt to reach the century mark in jumping might be considered a form of showing off through the influence of a dare.

F. (10). My schoolmates dared me to jump a hundred times without stopping. I tried to, but did not get up to 100.
F. (10). I once jumped 200 times without stopping on account of a dare.
F. (10). My schoolmates told me of a girl who jumped 100 times and dropped dead. They then dared me to do it which I did.
F. (18). Yesterday I was dared to jump rope and not willing to be defeated by the others present, I did it.

(8) Eating various things on account of dares is common among young children, particularly in defiance of possible resulting sickness. Children between 6 and 8 are particularly prone to eat mud pies, the unconscious instinct of eating not being as prominent as the desire to show one's ability.

F. (16). Dared to eat a certain weed. Was afraid but had seen the cat eat it, so felt she would not die if she ate it.
M. (6). Dared to eat a bottle of quinine pills.
M. (7). To eat a raw potato.
F. (7). To eat a mud pie. Unable to finish it.
F. (7). Playing house dared to eat a mud pie. Could not get the sand out of her mouth. The other children laughed she thought she was in great pain and began to cry.
F. (8). Dared to eat a red pepper.
F. (10). Dared to eat yellow clay. Made believe that I liked it although the truth was quite the contrary.
F. (10). Heard it would make a person sick to eat a raw oyster with sugar on it. Was dared to do it and ate one.
F. (8). Dared to eat poison ivy. Did so.
F. (12). Dared to eat green crab apples. Ate two. Taste remained in mouth for a week. Felt sick but would not tell any one.
F. (14). Dared to eat flowers. Did so very often, finally became a habit to eat any flower.
F. (12). Dared to eat horse chestnut.
F. (6). To eat soap and starch with oil in it.
F. (12). To eat poisonous sumach. Afraid of plant, but ate it for dare's sake.

Dares which court danger from others involve a moral aspect in that the danger is generally in the form of punishment. Disobedience, often of a direct and willful form, setting at defiance the restraint of authority, and the endeavor to impress one's companions that parents or teachers are not feared, are the underlying reasons for accepting these dares. At times there is hesitancy in taking the dare especially when the children are old enough to have definite ideas and understanding of right and wrong conduct.

Annoying the teacher seems to find general favor among children, and while one may feel a secret bond of sympathy with them, the data bearing on this all show a lack of respect, improper bringing up, defiance of authority, and the meaner motive of endeavoring to arouse anger.

F. (7). We had what we thought was a hard reading lesson. The other girls tore their's out out of their books and dared me to do the same. At first they called me names and then I thought I was a coward so I tore the lesson out. I felt I had done a great wrong and had no peace until I had told the teacher.

F. (9). Dared to call the teacher a crank. Rather than refuse the dare did it.

F. (10). Dared to upset cup of water on the floor. Did it and was punished.

F. (9). Late frequently at school. Carried a note home every day. Dared to tear it up. Did so without looking in note. Wondered what mother would say.

F. (11). Dared to say Gordon's corner when asked the capital of a country in Africa. Excused from the class for it.

M. (12). To knock on primary teacher's door during school hours. Did it and was caught.

M. (13). Dared to throw incandescent lamp on floor of schoolroom. Sent from the room for making a noise.

F. (10). To wave at strangers going by the school.

F. (10). To write an excuse from school and stay out. Did so but did not enjoy herself.

F. (14). To stay at home from school without telling mother and go after chestnuts. Went but got no chestnuts.

F. (14). Dared to go out of school without permission. Did so and was afraid to come back until recess.

F. (15). To eat raw potato in school.

The knowledge that punishment will result is evident, but the chance that one may escape causes the risk to be taken. This is often seen in adult life where the moral sense being weak unfortunate consequences result.

April Fooling the teacher is along the same line, although the spirit of disrespect does not seem so evident as a desire for enjoyment at some one else's expense.

F. (10). To write April Fool on the board ask the teacher who was substituting "if that problem was correct."

F. (11). To write April Fool in large letters on work to be handed in.

F. (10). To pin long rag on teacher's coat on April Fool day. Teacher walked around the school all day with it on.

F. (15). Went to door of schoolroom and asked to see teacher. When she came to door said, "April Fool."

Calling names, speaking to strangers, etc. often show the underlying desire to arouse some form of anger.

M. (10). One of my companions had a nickname Hippenback which he disliked very much. I was dared to call him it.
F. (11). Dared to speak to stranger. Did so.
F. (11). Sent to the store for granulated sugar, dared by brother to ask for Banty legged sugar. Did so.
F. (6). Dared to speak to a girl she was angry with. Angered by the dare, spoke.
F. (8). To say "Good Afternoon" to a passing stranger.
F. (14). To say to colored girl who was carrying a parasol over her head. "Ella, aren't you afraid you'll tan?"

Ringing the door bell gives pleasure to boys, and they do it for the excitement of seeing what will happen. Visions of an angry woman coming to the door appeal to their sense of the ridiculous. The pleasure in it decreases after the age of twelve or thirteen, when other interests hold their attention.

M. (7). Going to school, dared to ring door bell.
M. (11). Dared ring elevator bell in state house. Rang bell and ran.
F. (7). Dared ring front door bell.

Some dares which court punishment but where curiosity is the prevailing factor are seen in the following. Interest in the unknown and unexplored as shown by these might be turned to higher things if directed right. The lower qualities of doing harm do not seem to prevail.

F. (8). Dared to cut whiskers off a black cat. Did so and destroyed his beauty.
F. (11). Dropped a cat from second story window. Hesitancy at first was overcome by the desire to see what would happen.
M. (4). Boy fond of running on streets. Forbidden to go out of yard. Dared to come out, did so.
F. (7). Passed a yard where there was an angry goose with little goslings. Admired goslings, dared to pick one up. Hesitated but finally did so.
F. (6). Dared turn spigot in a barrel of vinegar. Knew it was wrong, but dreaded ridicule, turned the spigot wasted 10 gallons of vinegar and was severely punished.
M. (20). Dared to throw a pitcher of water at roommate.

Others which show lack of respect and defiance of authority, a perverted moral sense which in later years may lead to serious wrong doing, are seen in the following:

F. (4). Dared to refuse to obey maiden aunt.
F. (7). Dared to knock paper from father's hand. Knew it would make him angry, but did it.
F. (7). Dared throw water in brother's face and wake him.
F. (10). To leave the house before the dishes were washed.
F. (13). Went to the store, dared to leave articles on porch and run.
F. (14). Got behind aunt's chair and pull it from under her.
F. (12). Dared to sew teacher's coat sleeve up.

F. (13). Took a girl driving. Stayed very late. Dared not tell mother where she had been.

Things may be eaten when there is danger of illness resulting, and also on a dare when direct disobedience is involved.

F. (5). Dared by small brother to take piece of chocolate cake.
F. (6). Dared to eat ear of sweet corn. Did it but felt ashamed of taking it without mother's knowledge.
F. (6). Dared to eat a banana which mother had forbidden her to touch. Preferred to disobey rather than refuse the dare.
F. (6). Dared by brother to eat icing left to cool. Ate it and was sick.
M. (6). Dared by little cousin to steal cake from closet. She said: "Roy you are afraid, I dare you to!" Roy did it immediately.
F. (15). Dared to eat quinine pills. Ate three.

At the root of desire or craving lies a consciousness of inferiority. To desire a thing is to feel the absence or want of the thing. Children desire to appear well in the eyes of their mates, to be considered brave, consequently they will often do things when it would expose them to ridicule if they refused. This is seen in the matter of wearing clothes of various sorts and eating things disliked. Girls will wear old and ridiculous clothes with an idea of showing their bravery and courage in so doing. Girls between 12 and 16 will put on their father's or brother's clothes, probably impelled by the desire to see how they would look, although aware of the impropriety. The following are examples:

F. (7). Dared to dress up in old clothes and play mother was a washerwoman. Did so and passed the morning on the street telling people about poverty of the family.
F. (7). Wears old black hat on street.
F. (8). Wears brother's clothes out doors.
F. (8). Dared to wear mother's long skirt to the store. Did it, but felt very foolish.
F. (9). Dressed in mother's clothes and went out on the street.
M. (9). Dared to wear mother's sunbonnet to post-office. Did it.
F. (11). Wore father's clothes on street.
F. (11). Dressed like Salavtion Army lass and went out on street.
F. (14). Dared to wear father's long coat and derby down town. Did it.
F. (16). Dressed in brother's clothes and went to aunt's house.

Eating and drinking things disliked are done only to avoid ridicule and show the beginning of a character which may be swayed by the opinion of others.

F. (14). Dared to eat half a dozen olives. Ate them though I disliked them.
F. (18). Dared to eat large spoonful of strong horse-radish.
F. (10). Dared to take "bad medicine."
F. (15). Dared to drink five glasses of water at once. Had boasted of ability.
F. (18). Dared to drink a cup of vinegar.

Some dares which seem to be in direct defiance of propriety are seen in the latter data. Children should be taught the

fitness of correct behavior, and when it is set at defiance after the age of twelve the instinct of action is being turned in a downward direction. It is as bad and perhaps worse to be unmindful of the opinion of others as it is to be too mindful of it, and the spirit of rash action being nurtured may crowd out a better instinct. The spirit encouraging the dare may be condemned as much as the spirit of the dare itself.

F. (10). Dared to jump in wagon and ride to town with a farmer.
F. (15). Dared to untie horse and carriage and go driving.
F. (9). Drove around in father's grocery wagon with a boy she did not know.
F. (16). Dared to go into fashionable confectionery store and order a cents worth of candy.
F. (19). Dared offer waiter in ice cream parlor $5 bill in payment for two plates of ice cream.
F. (19). Dared carry two live chickens from market.
M. (20). Dared to sweep street. Took dare reluctantly.

Refusing to Take a Dare

The data on refusing to take a dare are not sufficient to warrant any conclusion as to age, there being only twenty-six answers from girls and two from boys. Of the answers from the girls the largest number were at the age of 8 years; 9,10 and 12 showing the same number respectively. Jumping and eating things usually forbidden still play the principal part. The reasons for refusing to take the dare show some rather striking contrasts, the idea of harm to themselves or of disobedience seeming to hold equal place. These are seen in the following:

Girl (8). Dared to jump off a shed roof, became very uuch frightened when she thought of the distance and refused to take the dare.
Girl. (12). Dared by another girl to jump over a post said: "I can do it, but I won't do it now for my head aches."
Girl. (13). Dared to eat a green peach asid, "Eat a green peach? I guess not: What do you take me for anyhow?"
Girl. (8). Dared to be hidden in a barrel in a field, knew her mother would look for her and be anxious so did not do it.
Girl. (7). Dared to hide the boy's ball bat. Afraid her cousin would whip her so did not do it.
Girl. (7). Dared to jump from stone steps. Every time she jumped was afraid of catching her foot on one of the bottom steps and falling. At last refused, giving as an excuse "It stings your feet too much to jump."
Girl. (10). Dared to call her father up on the phone and tell him to come home. Knew she would be punished so would not.
Boy. (10). Dared to eat a green apple after his mother had forbidden him to do so, refused to take the dare.
Girl. (10). Dared to go on the ice when her mother had forbidden her to do so. At first she felt uncomfortable seeing the other girls and listening to their jeers, but was glad she had minded when she went home.
Girl. (12). Mother had forbidden her to go to the woods after Arbutus. Children coaxed and pleaded with her; finally one said, "Well you don't dare," she replied, "I won't take your dare even though I am sorry I can't go."

The rejection of various other dares was reported, such as refusing to ring a door bell, turn a hose on a colored boy passing, bury a ring, roll a piece of candy in the sand and eat it, and wear an old hat to church; but no definite reason was given.

One instance in which a sense of right and wrong is seen, is the following:

Girl. (7). Passing a grocery store saw a basket of apples. Another girl said, "I'll dare you to take one." "No," replied, the other, "I won't do it, It isn't right."

Another case shows a similar feeling.

Girl. (10). Dared to take an apple out of a boy's desk. Other girls said, "If you will, then we will." She still refused. They called her a coward and double dared her but she still refused. Two others show somewhat different phases of the sense of right and wrong, one refusing the dare with the feeling of victory to herself, the other on the ground of propriety.

Girl. (8). When I was about 8 yrs. old, I was dared to jump a stream about 3 feet wide. Before I was dared I did intend to jump the stream, but when dared I emphatically refused. I felt I had gained a victory because I wanted to jump the stream very much. I was always taught it was wrong to take any kind of a dare. I felt sure I could jump it and was making a sacrifice in not coming to the front and showing my power.

Girl. (15). Walking in the woods with a younger girl they suddenly saw a drunken man staggering along. "I dare you to speak to that drunken man," cried the younger girl. The older refused on the plea of propriety.

Conclusion

From the present study it appears that the origin of the impulse to take a dare may be traced back to fear and pride. It is an emotion which centres around the idea of self and is largely the love of approbation and fear of its opposite. Every child wishes to keep the good esteem of its playmates and will do all in its power to gain and retain it. The exercise of power also comes in, which as Bain says is due to a sense of superior might or energy on a comparative trial. The growing youth is pleased at his increase of strength, and the conquest of any apparent difficulty gives him a thrill of satisfaction, as the idea of being beaten in a contest brings the depressing sense of littleness. Any one detracting from his sense of superiority, influence and ability stings to the quick and gives rise to a feeling of resentment which has jealousy at the root.

Dares involving jumping, imitation, chance and desire for excitement are furthered by the underlying definite and intense impulse for activity. In eating things and wearing things curiosity as to the result comes in as a secondary factor.

Taking a dare is not a thing to be encouraged, but rather discouraged. The instigator of the dare may develop rashness or bravery, but for the great majority of those taking the dare it is only a weakening of their moral sense of

right and wrong; they allow the fear of ridicule to overcome moral courage. That children are aware of the meaning and sense of taking a dare is seen in the replies of those who said, "I was often sorry after I had taken the dare;" I felt I had gained a great victory in not taking the dare;" "I felt very foolish for taking the dare." These, of course, are undoubtedly in the minority, the fear of being called a coward or the teasing of one's mates usually causing all other considerations to be set aside.

The dare is often the cause of much misunderstood behavior in children. Often an act seems bold and rash to us, as when urged on by his brother, sister or playmates, the child "knocks a paper from his father's hand;" "annoys the teacher;" skates on a pond, when forbidden, or the like. Not knowing that he has been dared we condemn him, but were the fact known, the punishment would be directed especially toward the "darer."

How best can a feeling of disapproval be aroused and the impulse to activity inherent in the dare be turned to good account? The remedy is suggested by the dare itself.

The desire for excitement in the "darer," and of approval in the one dared, may be guided in the right direction by training in games involving leadership and chance. In such games the sense of fair play for all is developed, rather than pleasure in possible harm and discomfort to some. Gymnastic and athletic ability may also help. Half the pleasure is lost to the boy who says,"I dare you to jump from that beam," when the child dared not only proceeds to accept the dare but may even attempt a still harder one. He has a knowledge of his own power and ability and knows how far he can rely upon them and is undisturbed at any challenge of them. For the weak, timid child to gain this courage is of physical as well as mental benefit.

Taking a dare is not necessarily a thing to be deplored; indeed, a dare given and taken in the right spirit may not be harmful; but when the evil impulse of inciting others to do wrong comes in, it is morally dangerous. This must be guarded against. The school may play an important part here. If it builds up a spirit of fair rivalry and competition, of co-operation for the general good of all, of abhorrence toward anything inclining towards meanness, and encourages this spirit, in school and out, in play and in class work, a protection and a strength will be built up which may be relied upon.

As the material shows, in a dare lies one of the greatest temptations to children. In the material on refusal to take a dare we have seen the feeling of satisfaction and of gain at

being able to say "no." Shall we teach the child that when dared he should refuse and respond by saying, "I can do something harder than that." This, if carried too far, might develop into a sort of boastfulness, but on the other hand we do not want to teach a child that he must always refuse a dare and thus run the risk of developing a prig.

The material on which this study is based is not sufficient to warrant any very definite conclusions; but it shows that dares are common among children between the ages of 8 to 11, it is extremely suggestive, and it does indicate that the problem of developing in children the right attitude toward a dare is one of prime importance in child training.

Distribution of cases according to Age

Age	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	22	38	Total
GIRLS																				
1. Walking in water, etc.		1		1	2	4	5		1	1			1							16
2. Jumping			8	3	9	4	3	4		2		1	1							35
3. Riding or driving horse				3	1	1	2			1	1	1								9
4. Walking in dark				1	1	1		1												4
5. Putting hand in flame					1	1	1	1												4
6. Ringing bell				2																2
7. Standing on car track					1				1											2
8. Jumping rope							3								1					4
9. Wearing clothes					2	2	1	2			1	1	1							10
10. Annoying teacher				1	1	1	3	2			2	1								11
11. April Fooling teacher							2	2												4
12. Eating			5	3	3		5		2	1	1	1			2					23
13. Drinking liquids							2							1						3
14. Calling names			1		1			2			1									5
15. Miscellaneous			1	2	4		5		4	1	1		1			1	1			21
BOYS																				
1. Walking in water							3		1	1										6
2. Calling names							1													1
3. Ringing bell				1				1												2
4. Standing on car tracks										1								1		2
5. Annoying teacher									1	1	1									3
6. Eating			2	3			1													6
7. Wearing clothes						1												1		2
8. Jumping			3		1		1		2				3							10
9. Miscellaneous		1			1			1	1								2			6
Total	2	2	21	22	24	14	38	16	13	9	8	5	7	1	3	1	3	1	1	191

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EUROPEAN INVESTIGATIONS IN SCHOOL HYGIENE[1]

By Wm. H. Burnham, Ph. D.

During the last twenty-five years many important investigations in School Hygiene have been made in Europe. These have had to do with the sanitary conditions of schoolhouses, the growth of school children, school diseases, defects of the senses, adeniods, decaying teeth, the development of the voice, the hygiene of reading, writing, and of the other subjects of the curriculum, as well as fatigue, the period of study, recesses, home work, etc., etc.

I have time to illustrate but one class of these investigations and I choose those that relate to the management of contagious diseases in the school.

First of all, let us take diphtheria. Recent investigations in London suggest the scientific method of managing this disease in the schools. But before speaking of these, let me ask you to recall a few facts. Every adult here can recall the dread caused by this enemy of childhood before the use of the antitoxin became general. It used to be the most alarming of the school diseases, and every mother knew the danger liable to be encountered when she sent her child to school. The way the doctor felt is well described by the words of a prominent physician.

"Nor was the doctor in much happier plight. The feeling of helplessness, the sense of foreboding, with which we faced every case was something appalling. Few of us who have been in practice twenty years or more, or even fifteen, will ever forget the shock of dismay which ran through us whenever a case to which we had been summoned revealed itself to be diphtheria. Of course, there was a fighting chance, and we made the most of it. But what turned our liver to water—as the graphic Oriental phrase has it—was the knowledge which, like Banquo's ghost, would not down, that while many cases would recover of themselves, and in many border-line ones our skill would turn the balance in favor of recovery, yet if the disease happened to take a certain sadly familiar, virulent form we could do little more to stay its fatal course than we could to stop an avalanche, and we never knew when a particular epidemic or a particular

[1] Address given at the second Child Welfare Conference, Clark University, June, 1910.

case would take that turn. 'Black' diphtheria was as deadly as the Black Death of the Middle Ages."[1]

Since the use of the antitoxin has become general the mortality from diphtheria has decreased remarkably. In Boston the average ratio of mortality from 1876 to 1894, before the use of the antitoxin, was 14.25 per 10,000 of the population. The average ratio since the use of the antitoxin from 1895-1909 inclusive has been only 5.17. The decrease in mortality is well illustrated by the statistics gathered by Dr. McCollom at the Boston City Hospital.

While the use of the antitoxin has enormously reduced the mortality, nevertheless, many of its terrors still remain, and frequently it is difficult to control an epidemic of the disease.

The significant facts in regard to diphtheria are briefly as follows:

The disease is caused by the Klebs-Loeffler bacillus in the throat or nose, and is usually spread by direct personal contact. The persons who are acutely ill with diphtheria are not the serious sources of contagion; for they are isolated. The most serious sources of contagion are the following:

First, the perfectly healthy child who has come in contact with the disease and carries the germs. Such cases are called "carriers."

Second, children who are suffering from mild forms of the disease not perhaps suspected by parents and teachers.

Third, children who have had the disease, but have returned to school still carrying the Klebs-Loeffler bacilli.

There are many survivals of old ideas in regard to the treatment of diphtheria. It is usually supposed that it is always a severe disease, and hence the great danger that comes from "carriers" is ignored. School closure is resorted to and the children allowed to return to the school after a few weeks without any examination to prove that they are free from the disease. and great faith is placed in disinfection as a means of protection. This without bacteriological examination is of no avail. We disinfect the rooms and the furniture, but the disease germs are in the noses and throats of the children. Disinfection by means of sulphur, as described by Dr. Kerr, is "a procedure only to be classed with fetichistic incantations and medivæal exorcisms."

Very important and significant studies of diphtheria among school children have been made in London under the direction of the medical officer. The method is similar to that used by boards of health in this country, only special effort is made to detect the carriers before they do mischief.

[1] Hutchinson, Woods: Preventable Diseases, Boston, N. Y., 1909. pp. 223-224.

"Diphtheria returns are kept under continuous observation, and on any suspicion of school influence showing itself my assistant visits the school, and all children giving any sign of ill-health, such as aural or nasal discharge, enlarged glands, undue pallor, or a history of recent absence, have a small portion of mucous removed from throat or nose by a sterilized platinum wire, and placed on the surface of a tube with sterile blood serum. This is then cultivated in an incubator at 98° F. for 15 to 18 hours. The cultures are then examined microscopically, and any showing suspicious forms are then stained with Neisser's stain. Except in very rare cases this is deemed sufficient. Only cases showing Klebs-Loeffler bacilli are counted as diphtheria, the pseudo-bacilli we neglect." (Report of the Educ. Committee of the London County Council, March, 1905. London, page 25.)

In some cases cultures are made from all the children. The significant and favorable results of a scientific method of managing diphtheria are illustrated by the following concrete cases from the London reports:

"Grafton-road (Islington, N.)—During April, 1905, some cases of diphtheria occurred amongst the infants; out of 33 cultures one boy was discovered to be a carrier, and on his exclusion the outbreak ceased."[1]

"William-street, (Fulham).—An upper class of the Infant's department having had several cases, 33 of the children were bacteriologically tested, and six found to be harbouring the bacillus. On excluding them the outbreak terminated."[1]

"Union-street (Woolwich).—Much illness and some diphtheria being reported, a visit of enquiry was made on December 11th, 35 infants being examined, nine presented Klebs-Loeffler bacilli. Measles and whooping-cough were also prevalent, and, as the children seemed in a condition of low vitality and likely to be disposed to aid dissemination of infectious disease, the department was closed till the Christmas vacation."[1]

"At Lewisham Bridge School, in September, a few cases of diphtheria occurred in an infant class room. The Medical Officer of Health was very anxious to close the room and exclude all the children, but it was felt that the more scientific procedure would be to discover the carrier cases, and exclude them only. Accordingly, the children were all examined, and two were found harbouring diphtheria bacilli. On the exclusion of these two the outbreak subsided entirely. One of the cases—R.C.—had a profuse nasal discharge; On December 8th he was again re-examined, and although the nose now was free from diphtheria germs, a culture from the apparently healthy throat still gave Klebs-Loeffler bacilli, al-

[1] Report 1906, pp. 33, 34.

though this time they grew in degerate and bizarre forms, showing that their vitality was on the point of exhaustion. In this case, therefore, the diphtheria bacilli persisted in a throat for over seventy days. Had the children been excluded, say, for twenty-one days, this boy would have returned with the others in a still infectious condition, and the closure would have been a failure."[1]

In the report for 1909 of 3,009 cultures from 25 schools, where the diphtheria bacillus was found 122 cases Dr. Kerr says, "In every instance in which carriers were detected and excluded from the school there was a prompt cessation of cases of diphtheria."

Thus, in general, school closure as a means of checking diphtheria is likely to have but little influence; with competent medical inspection it seems better ordinarily to have the schools continued, because in this way the disease can be better controlled than when the children are on the streets or at home. Dr. Kerr in a recent report writes:

"It has been shown that school closure ought seldom or never to be necessary in elementary schools owing to the prevalence of diphtheria. With modern technique it is possible to discover those who are spreading the disease and to obtain their exclusion. The objections to school closure are that "carriers" are not discovered and isolated, and that there is not the least guarantee that at the end of the period of closure the children who are the cause of the spread of the disease will be innocuous. The closing of schools for diphtheria should be looked upon as a confession of impotence and defeat."

The only safe method of procedure seems to be the following: As soon as a case breaks out in a school bacteriological tests of all the children should be made in order to detect any possible "carriers." In case diphtheria has occurred in a household all children in the family should be examined bacteriologically before being permitted to re-enter the school. Children who have had the disease should not be permitted to return to school until a number of negative cultures has shown that the disease is no longer carried.

The problem of dealing with diphtheria in the school is a very difficult one because the only sure way seems to be the exclusion of all children who are "carriers." But this is likely to be strongly objected to by parents, who see no reason why children who are well should be excluded from the school. The serious character of the disease and the satisfactory results likely to come from thorough-going investigation and rigorous exclusion of all cases showing a positive culture, seem thoroughly to justify such drastic measures, and teachers and

[1] Report 1904, p. 21.

the community should be educated to the need of a scientific method of handling the disease.

Very interesting investigations have been made also in regard to measles, which Dr. Kerr calls "the most fatal disease of childhood and the one which plays the greatest havoc with school attendance." The studies made indicate the great saving of life which occurs if the disease can be postponed from the early to the later years, even from the kindergarten to the elementary grades, and the importance of the scientific method of dealing with the disease. Passing over these investigations, interesting and important as they are, I may give a single illustration from a different field.

Certain forms of psychic and nervous disorders may fairly be reckoned among the contagious diseases. They are, of course, spread not by germs but by psychic contagion, by imitation; but isolation of the pupils and school closure are sometimes just as necessary as in case of measles or scarlet fever; and the importance of a scientific mode of treatment in such epidemics seems to be clearly shown by the cases on record.

Among the more obvious of these psychic epidemics are those where the chief symptoms seem to be a form of hysterical convulsions. Several epidemics of this kind in public schools have now been reported. I choose two of these which are instructive from one school in Switzerland.

1893 in a girl's school in Basel an epidemic of this kind broke out, and this was made the subject of a special study by Dr. Aemmer. The chief symptom of the disorder was an hysterical tremor. This attacked especially the weaker and more nervous children. The school was clearly the focus of contagion and the desire to get rid of school work seems to have been an important factor in causing the disorder.

The presence of psychic contagion was obvious. Dr. Aemmer concluded that the epidemic was chiefly due to imitation. The cases were concentrated. The disorder spread from those first attacked into other classes. It decreased during vacation and broke out again after vacation. The attacks were rare or ceased altogether as soon as the children were kept at home. There was often a relapse when they returned to school again. The disease frequently appeared among children who had before been healthy when one of the sufferers had an attack in the immediate neighborhood; and when one child had an attack others did also.

The measures that seemed finally effective were as follows: Every child attacked was sent home. Children that were cured were excused from writing and manual work and gymnastics for the first three weeks after returning to school;

parents were requested to spare their children excitement and strain; poor children were fed; the feeding of the sick children was extended over vacation time and united with walks and play out of doors. But not until these measures had been carried out for a long time did the epidemic cease.

By what seems to have been a remarkable coincidence a similar epidemic of nervous convulsions broke out in the same school about ten years later, namely, in 1904. The epidemic continued four weeks. The cases occurred in fourteen different classes. The age of the pupils who suffered was from eleven to fifteen. The characteristic symptom was a quick vibrating tremor usually in the right hand and in the right forearm. The predisposing causes seemed to be often anæmia, or nervous heredity; but in many cases they were indefinite. The immediate cause in most cases was imitation or auto-suggestion, although it was reported to have been fright in a few cases. That the desire to get rid of school work was also a predisposing cause seems to have been clear.

On the 11th of June the report was first circulated that the tremors had broken out in the girl's school and that they would get a lengthened holiday, namely, six weeks for the summer's vacation. In one building the rumor was that there would be six weeks of the summer's vacation if 300 pupils had the tremors On the 13th of June it was reported that two pupils in one school had been sent home on account of the tremors. On the following day two further cases occurred, in another schoolhouse also two more. The number continued until altogether there were 27 cases.

The school officials, however, had learned wisdom. Instead of sending the afflicted pupils to their home or closing the school the announcement was made that school would continue in session as usual, and it was made clear that the contraction of this disorder would not be a means of escaping from the work of the school.

The method of treatment was very interesting. Dr. Burckhardt proposed that they should not exclude the afflicted girls from the school, but form them into a special class and have them instructed separately from the other pupils. Accordingly a small room was taken for the purpose and a special teacher opened the class on the 17th of June, and this was continued for four weeks.

Talking with the pupils seemed to be helpful. As soon as a case occurred in a class the pupils were appealed to, to use their reason, and as soon as the special class for the patients was opened, and especially after the pupils had nicknamed this the *Naarestibli*, "Fool-institute," this appeal to the pupils was no longer necessary.

Special care was taken of these pupils in the special class. The hours were short; the pupils worked from quarter past eight in the morning until half past nine and then there was a recess for half an hour; then they worked from ten to quarter of twelve and then there was no further work until from quarter past two until three forty-five. The children were given warm milk and bread for a lunch. They had simple gymnastic exercises beginning with free exercises. Ten simple arm and hand movements were employed. The instruction covered all the chief branches of the curriculum. Care was taken that the children should not be overworked. There was only one case of negligence. There were few cases of absences, namely, only four out of 444 half days, only one absence for illness.

A great deal of common sense and psychological insight was used in the treatment of these cases. The calmer children were placed in the front seats. The children were not questioned or punished or blamed on account of failure in their lesson.

School work was not much affected, except in some cases the penmanship and arithmetic. The pupils of this special class seemed to enjoy their work. They were reported as being very happy, and they seemed to develop a certain group consciousness and group spirit. They named their class the *Zitterklub Konkordia*.

A single concrete case is described as follows: The patient, E. S., was a girl of 13 years of age, weak and anæmic. On Friday, the 17th of June, she came home carrying her right hand, which trembled violently, in her apron. The mother scolded her for acting so like a fool. This had the effect on the quiet timid girl of making the excitement all the greater. The nervous twitchings appeared in the face also when the child attempted to answer; and this tremor in the face continued for about an hour. The mother who could not understand why the movements could not be repressed firmly bandaged the child's arm. The tremor did not stop but pain in the elbow joint ensued.

On the 18th of June E. S. came to the special class. She trembled so violently that writing was impossible for her. She was unable to answer the easiest questions and could not work with one place numbers in arithmetic. On Monday, the 20th of June, during a conversation during the ten o'clock recess her arm was unobtrusively massaged by the teacher, whereupon the movements became weaker. On Tuesday, the 21st of June, toward evening the tremor ceased. On Wednesday the pupil was calm and a surprising improvement in mental activity ensued, so that her performance was in no way behind

that of her classmates. On the 24th of June, she was dismissed from the class; and no more convulsions occurred.

Imagine 27 such cases and you have the *Zitterklub Konkordia*.

The great advantage of pedagogical treatment in such cases, and the wisdom of the special classes instead of school closure, seem to have been clearly demonstrated. The epidemic was soon over.

There were only six cases of relapse.

The noteworthy things in regard to this epidemic are as follows:

1st. The *tremor hystericus* as it was called was a purely psychic phenomenon. There was no pathological change of the nervous system at the basis of it.

2nd. It attacked especially the anæmic and nervous girls; and in most cases was caused by imitation, but also in some cases by fright and auto-suggestion.

3rd. It consisted in a quick vibrating tremor, most frequently in the right hand and in the right forearm, less often in the left hand and in the left forearm and upper arm or in the lower extremities.

4th. The treatment was purely a pedagogical one. The checking of the spread of the disorder was brought about by isolating the patients; and the cure of the individual was brought about by general improvement of the health, by talking to the patient, by regular occupation and by distraction of attention. Strengthening of the will and making the patient forget the tremor were helpful. In every case mildness and patience were necessary; great severity was harmful.

This study is instructive, not merely because it indicates how similar epidemics should be treated, but also because it suggests a helpful mode of treatment for what may be called certain moral, or immoral, epidemics that frequently occur in the schools.

The results of the few investigations that have been described are enough perhaps to show the importance of European investigations in Child Hygiene.

Certain definite facts in regard to these so-called children's diseases should be emphasized. First of all, although the children of to-day are the descendants of generations who have survived these diseases and are relatively immune, nevertheless, the mortality from such diseases in the early years of life is very serious. According to the rough statistics of the United States census the annual mortality from measles is nearly 13,000; from scarlet fever, over 6,000; whooping cough, nearly 10,000.[1]

[1] Woods Hutchinson: *op. cit.*

Second, the prevalence of these diseases seriously handicaps school work. According to Mr. Martin, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, "In consequence of the presence of some infectious disease, chiefly diphtheria, scarlet fever, or measles, during the school year of 1906-7, 318 schoolrooms" in Massachusetts were closed and classes dismissed. These rooms were in seventy towns and the classes included 12,122 children.[1]

I have spoken especially of diphtheria, taking this as an illustration. It is now well known that this is a preventable disease. With proper isolation and general scientific management it has been estimated that this, along with other school diseases, could be eliminated from the world in ten years. It would in any case probably be possible in a short time to make the danger of a child's contracting this disease in a schoolroom as slight as that of his being attacked by a lion on the way to school in one of our urban communities. This at least is the aim of hygiene.

The school being a place where practically all of the children are collected offers an unusual opportunity for controlling and checking these diseases. The adoption of scientific methods would mean the saving of the taxpayer's money, the saving of much suffering, and the saving of the lives of thousands of children.

[1] Annual Report of the Bd. of Education, 1906-7, p. 93.

BOOK NOTES

A history of education during the Middle Ages, and the transition to modern times. FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES, New York, by Macmillan, 1910. 328 p.

The position of the author in his first volume which appeared in 1909, is maintained in this, the second. (1) He believes, with Davidson, that education may be regarded as "conscious evolution" as opposed to the unconscious evolution of the race before man "took himself in hand and endeavored to direct his living toward a higher development." (2) He believes that all real progress has been through individualism, he has "endeavored to point out the traditional forms of expression that have grown up among the various peoples and become fixed by social habit, and the lack of progress that has ensued, until, through some conflict of traditions, the individual is enabled to select a new pathway of expression." A reading of the book makes it clear that his individualism is not of the narrower sort. He recognizes the tendency of individualism to run riot if too self-centered, and that the problem facing modern educators is to "harmonize the individual with society and to develop personality progressively in keeping with its environment." (p. 317.)

The first part of the book deals with the Middle Ages. The problem was one of assimilation and was characterized by repression. "Progress was impossible until the bondage of authority, convention, and institutions was broken." The period was not one of complete stagnation, but, of slow and painful development. While the author is well aware of the shortcomings of its various institutions, and submits a careful criticism of each, he shows that in the end each contributed something to the general progress. In a transitional chapter, "The Passing of the Middle Ages," he summarizes the period, brings together the various influences that have been at work, shows how at last all things are prepared for an awakening of the human spirit, and thus leads naturally to the second part of the book, "The Transition to Modern Times."

Here, of course, the problem becomes more simple as regards the fortunes of individualism, but more complex when one attempts to estimate the many various factors involved. There are times when one regrets that the author must confine himself to the limits of a text-book; so many are the facts that must be recorded that the criticism is forced to become less explicit and more general. However, the original point of view is maintained, and we are shown how individualism arose in Italian Humanism, only to fall because it was too personal; how, north of the Alps, where it had greater promise, it was smothered by the formalism and distrust of reason among the Protestant reformers and Catholic educators; how, in "Sense realism" it again renewed its strength, only to be overcome by Puritanism, Pietism and Rationalism. Yet, "while it can be seen that the revival in each of these periods lapses and hardens once more into a new sort of formalism, something in every era was accomplished for progress, and the social pendulum never swung back so far as the point from which it started. Thus was the way opened for the absolute break from tradition and authority that occurred during the latter part of the eighteenth century." (p. 316.)

While we may disagree with the author occasionally, as, for example, we think he lets Sturm off too easily, and that he fails to make clear enough

the chasm that separated men like Vittorino and Guarino from some of their humanistic contemporaries like Poggio and Filelfo, we must say that, in our opinion, he has written a history that is humanistic in the broadest sense of that term. He has made of dry historical facts a narrative, full of interest, one that touches the life, politics, religion and philosophy of the times. His critical summaries are most helpful; one is continually impressed with his desire to be fair. The list of sources and authorities which follows each chapter is well chosen, though we regret that Ziegler's *Geschichte der Pâedogogik* is not included, and that the references are often incomplete without date and number of pages. H. P. WELD.

Der gegenwärtige Stand der Methodik der Intelligenzprüfung (mit besonderer Rucksicht auf die Kinderpsychologie), von E. MEUMANN, Zeit. f. Exp. Päd., B. XI, H. I., 1910. pp. 68-79.

Meumann here deals with the question of the testing of intelligence in a clearer and more concise way than in the last chapters of the first volume of his "Vorlesungen." The article is intended as an introduction to a series, which we are told is to follow, and, while it contains little new matter, it presents the present status of investigations in a clear manner.

The best classification of mental tests is by their aim. On this classification, four great groups appear. First, the psychiatrical. Here tests both of mental content and of correct functioning have been tried. Rodenwaldt, Ziehen and his pupils, have shown, however, that with normal subjects, tests of mental content are extremely unreliable, whether we test for the retention of school knowledge or for memory of personal experience. There is literally no item of knowledge that may not be lacking in the normal subject. Tests of mental content ought, therefore, to be used with caution, and to be confined to the field of psychiatry alone, where unusual gaps in knowledge are of course suspicious. Better standards are needed.

The second great aim of investigations of intelligence is to separate the normal from the abnormal child. The problem differs from the psychiatrical, (a) because we are dealing with the first symptoms of mental disease and a prognosis is more difficult, and (b) because many tests usable with the adult are too complicated for the child. In this group falls the question of tests for the degree of subnormality. Those of Binet and de Sanctis are the best here, as are those of Major for incipient abnormality.

The third aim is the analysis of the intelligence of the normal adult. Here must be investigated grades of capacity found within normal limits, qualitative differences in capacity (types of attention, imagination, etc.), and the correlation of different traits in the same individual.

Fourth, we have the question of the determination of the intelligence of the normal child. This repeats the problems of the third group, and in addition we have the question whether standards for given years can be set up (work of Binet and Simon, Goddard).

All four groups of problems may be approached from two different points of view. First, we may analyze the intelligence of the subject point by point, considering every function, and showing, synthetically, how the functioning revealed determines his behavior in a concrete situation. This is the ideal method for the testing of intelligence, but impracticable. A short cut to the same goal has therefore been adopted; second, by the so-called "mental tests," which seek to determine the general intelligence of the individual by his reaction to a single series of critical tests. Such tests may be "psychoanalytic," seeking to adapt some common psychological experimental method so as to involve a test of the higher mental functions indirectly (æsthesiometer tests, etc.); or "practical," involving behavior in a complex situation empirically chosen as a test of intelligence (Binet's method of comparing the length and correctness of phrases copied from a single glance). Both sorts presuppose (a) that all mental functions

share in any activity, and (b) that correlations exist between the different mental faculities. Until these presuppositions are thoroughly investigated, the status of mental tests of this sort must remain in doubt. But they are too valuable for practical reasons to be discarded wholly; we should rather seek to improve them.

In this connection, we should use, not single tests, but series, involving the principal mental functions (de Sanctis, Binet and Simon, Goddard), and we should recognize that we are not dealing with intelligence as a whole, but only with some of its higher capacities. We need also a better consensus as to what we mean by intelligence.

Especially in dealing with children, we should avoid the use of tests of mental content, which have proved so unreliable, confining ourselves to purely functional tests, using tests of content, like knowledge of spatial and temporal relations, only in a secondary way and with younger children.

For the higher functions of intelligence we should use material involving the ability to work with abstract material, in a purposive way, seeing new relations and breaking up old combinations. A series of experiments, mostly those already tried out by others, designed to test this capacity, is appended. H. W. CHASE.

An outline for the study of American civil government with special reference to training for citizenship, for use in secondary schools. Prepared for the New England History Teachers' Association by its committee, R. G. Huling, W. R. Butler, L. B. Evans, John Haynes, W. B. Munro. New York, Macmillan, 1910. 187 p.

This committee took a long time and held many meetings to bring forth results for which their preface shows they are in a somewhat apologetic mood. They had to agree upon the position of the study of government in secondary schools, its aim, scope, relations, point of contact, method and form of syllabus. After preliminary principles and definitions and the theory of state they begin by the study of local government in district, village, borough, town, city. There is then described the government of the state, nation, of territories and dependencies, and then they discuss citizenship, political parties and the selection of officials. The work is largely a syllabus of topics and devices, with copious references and blank pages for notes, with a reading list at the end.

Elements of plane and spherical trigonometry, by DAVID A. ROTHROCK. New York, Macmillan, 1910. 99 p.

This text is designed to be a basis for fifty or sixty hour course in advanced secondary and elementary college courses. Emphasis is placed upon drill work in trigonometric identities, on applications, practical problems and calculations by means of natural functions.

The training of elementary school teachers in Germany, by I. L. KANDEL. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 31, 1910. 137 p.

After discussing the historical development, the author treats successively of administrative authorities, preparatory training of teachers, normal schools, their curriculum, professional subjects and practical teaching, the teacher at work, the training of teachers in service, the training of women teachers; and then come some conclusions, with tables and references in an appendix.

The training of teachers in England and Wales, by PETER SANDIFORD. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 32, 1910. 168 p.

The systems in vogue in Scotland and Ireland differ fundamentally from the English system and so fall outside the scope of this work, which is the

outcome of researches made during two years, to which are added the practical knowledge of a lecturer in Manchester. A brief account of the administration of education in England and Wales is given to serve as a background for this work. Then comes a history of the training of teachers, their preliminary education, an account of training colleges for elementary teachers and others, the teacher in service, the teacher as a civil servant, and ends with statistical interpretation and comparison. The work covers some ground not covered elsewhere.

The nursery nurse's companion, compiled by Honnor Morten. London, Mills & Boon, 1910. 140 p.

This work is written in response to a steadily growing sentiment in favor of training for nursery nurses, a movement represented by the well-known Norland Institute. It was first confined to the training of lady nurses but through the National Society of Day Nurseries has spread to the training of girls of the working class in creches. There is much pressure now brought to bear on the London education authorities to start a trade and domestic school and otherwise help the movement. There is considerable demand for the services of young women possessing some knowledge of young children. The writer advises before beginning his course girls should have spent a year at a domestic economy school and that scholarships for a further six or nine months course should be granted on the recommendation of the heads of these schools. These courses should always be in connection with some institution for the care of babies. There should be lessons on infant hygiene, child nature, story telling, singing, playing games, making simple toys, etc. The chapters describe creches, primary school training, seeking a situation, management of the nursery, children's diet, clothing, amusements, illness, accidents, Catholic nurses, the nurse as heroine.

Home management, a three years' course for schools, by Wilena Hitching; with an introduction by Alice Ravenhill. London, Chambers, 1910. 214 p.

The development of right-minded citizens depends on the working together of home and school, although from a variety of causes this apparently obvious fact has but recently attracted the attention it deserves. The end of study is the betterment of life, the right care of the body, etc. The chief topics considered in this first year course are the kind of girl who is likely to become a good home manager; she will be first of all cleanly in her person and body, well mannered, and fond of air, exercise, sleep, wholesome food, etc. Second come practical lessons in the management of the home, such as lighting the fire, how to sweep, dust, clean a saucepan, a sink, make a bed, set a table, work on each day of the week, fortnightly cleansing, etc. Under food, too, the treatment of this book is very specific, specifying bread and porridge, bread and milk, boiling an egg, making a cup of cocoa, coffee; pea, lentil, haricot soup; meat, vegetables and puddings for working men; suppers for children and adults. Then comes washing, which is treated in the same detailed way, and very simple lessons upon clothing.

Die Syphilis der Unschuldigen (Syphilis Insontium), von Oskar Scheuer. Berlin, Urban & Schwarzenberg, 1910. 239 p.

The Austrian society for fighting sex diseases was founded in 1907 and it realized at the very outset that the great need was the diffusion of proper knowledge among the people. A preliminary survey, which was finished in 1908, showed the prevalence of syphilis and how it was "the pest of the present day." This writer bases his own special report upon a total of 5,670 cases of extra genital chancre. The chief chapters are on the hygiene of the disease, general idea of it, its history, personal observations, pandemic

sporadic, and prephotropic cases, statistics. A valuable bibliography is appended.

Character lessons in American biography for public schools and home instruction, by JAMES TERRY WHITE. New York, Character Development League, 1909. 102 p.

This is a very interesting contribution to what may be called moral education. Four pictures of eminent men and women adorn each page, and the salient traits of their lives are epitomized under thirty-two different heads, viz.: Obedience, honesty, truthfulness, unselfishness, sympathy, consecration to duty, usefulness, industry, perseverance, patience, self-respect, purity, self-control, self-reliance, fortitude, courage, heroism, contentment, ambition, temperance, courtesy, comradeship, amiability, kindness to animals, justice, habits, fidelity, determination, imagination, hopefulness, patriotism, and character.

The legal status of rural high schools in the United States, with special reference to the methods employed in extending state aid to secondary education in rural communities, by EDWIN R. SNYDER. New York City, 1909. 225 p.

This work is largely historic and shows the influence of legislation upon the number and location of new schools, especially as influenced by the extension of state aid in certain commonwealths.

The development of school support in colonial Massachusetts, by GEORGE LEROY JACKSON. New York, 1909. 95 p.

The author aims to trace the various methods through which the earliest schools of Massachusetts were supported, showing at the same time the basis of experience for dealing with the problem of support through the close relationship existing between (1) education and religion, (2) education and the support and apprenticeship of the poor; and after partial support by general taxation had become customary to point out the many causes that made general taxation the sole method of school support and thus gave rise to the free school, properly controlled and properly supported.

English grammar schools in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by A. MONROE STOWE. New York, Columbia Univ., 1908. 200 p.

The history of English secondary schools of the sixteenth century reveals two movements, one destructive and the other constructive. The former culminated in the destruction of the monasteries, guilds and chantries; but before this climax the constructive movement showed itself in the foundation of special schools, as Saint Paul's and the City Grammar School of Bristol. After the destruction of the monasteries came the refoundation of the cathedrals and their schools. The present study is concerned with the independent schools as they existed in the reign of Elizabeth.

Mohonk addresses, by EDWARD EVERETT HALE and DAVID J. BREWER. With an introduction by Edwin D. Mead. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1910. 150 p.

It was a happy thought to put the addresses of these two eminent men, lately deceased, in this form and to dedicate it all to Mr. Smiley, the patron saint of the Mohonk movement.

The story of the rising generation, the Negro in revelation, in history, and in citizenship, by J. J. PIPKIN. Place of publication not given. Thompson Publishing Co., 1902. 491 p.

This is an interesting book about Negroes by Negroes and contains the biographies of scores of the recent and some of the past leaders of the race, with their photographs.

A white song and a black one, by JOSEPH F. COTTER. Louisville, Ky., Bradley & Gilbert Co., 1909. 64 p.

This writer achieved considerable repute by his Pied Piper of Hamlin. Besides their poetic merits, these poems have a distinct value as a contribution to the race question.

David Zeisberger's history of the Northern American Indians. Edited by Archer Butler Hulburt and William Nathaniel Schwarze. Ohio State Archæological and Historical Society. F. J. Heers Printing Co., 1910. 189 p.

It was a very happy thought of Professor A. B. Hulburt to print this ancient history of the Indians based upon his mission on the Muskingum River in Ohio in 1779 and 80. Besides its historical value, the author was a very acute observer and has described many institutions now entirely obsolete and so the work has certain perennial value.

New Geographies. First book, by RALPH S. TARR and FRANK M. MCMURRY. New York, Macmillan Co., 1910. 263 p.

This first book is of great interest and although smaller, marks a distinct advance upon Frye. It contains 322 cuts and various colored maps with appendixes containing reference to description of the prose and poetry of the topics treated in this book for both pupil and teacher. Chief statistics too are relegated to a table and there is a pronouncing vocabulary.

The young forester, by ZANE GREY. New York, Harper & Bros., 1910. 224 p.

This book treats choosing a profession, the man on the train, the trail, lost in the forest, the saw mill, the escape, the old hunter, bears, the cabin in the forest, the pioneer, the fight, the forest's greatest foe and the backfire. It is a tale of the forest rangers by one who had lived and worked among them.

Harper's book of little plays, by MARGARET SUTTON BRISCOE, JOHN KENDRICK BANGS, CAROLINE A. CREEVEY, MARGARET E. SANGSTER and others. Selected for home and school entertainments; with an introduction by Madalene D. Barnum. New York, Harper and Bros., 1910. 142 p.

These plays are intended for children of from about ten to twelve and are adapted for social entertainment, home pastime and school exercises. The great delight children have in "giving a play constitutes a great educational principle," exceeded perhaps by no other form of literary exercise. It enlists the enthusiastic and continued work of the children like almost nothing else and makes a deep impression on them. There are fifteen of these plays in all, with illustrations, stage directions and music.

The Ohio River, a course of empire, by ARCHER BUTLER HULBURT. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1906. 378 p.

This ornate and copiously illustrated work attempts to give the entire story of the settlement of the Northwest from the beginning when Rufus Putnam started from his old home in Rutland, Mass., to take posession and to organize the country. The old house, which is owned, preserved and repaired by a Massachusetts society for that purpose, has peculiar interest for people of the Western Reserve, an interest which is greatly stimulated by one of the most notable addresses ever given by the late Senator George F. Hoar. The memory of these days is still more fully conserved in the Historic Museum at Marietta College, Ohio, and Professor Hulburt is the vital link between these two centres. Moreover, he is by long study well qualified himself to give the story of the early days and to show the marvellous development which proceeded from the work which General Putnam began.

Class teaching and management, by WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR. New York, Harper Bros., 1910. 343 p.

This covers instruction and discipline and is intended for teachers, reading circles and a text-book for higher education institutions where teachers are trained. It has grown out of the author's experience as a superintendent and as a lecturer. Starting from the learning processes and the teaching processes, the writer describes department, grade and district school teaching, considers the teacher as an interpreter of the course of study, describes the day's work, its plan and record, control of the class and the individual, classifying, marking, grading, promoting, how to make a good school and class, the class teacher in the industrial arts, the teacher's own life in an age of educational expansion.

Plant anatomy from the standpoint of the development and functions of the tissues and handbook of micro-technic, by WILLIAM CHASE STEVENS. 2nd rev. ed. enlarged. Philadelphia, P. Blakiston's Son & Co., 1910. 379 p.

This is a second edition of a work published some years ago, plus a chapter on reproduction. Beginning with the cell differentiation of tissues secondary increase of thickness, the author passes on to discuss protection from injuries and loss of water, plant selection, absorption of water and minerals, transport of water and soil solutes, intake and distribution of gases, construction of plant food, transports of food throughout the plant, stoppage of food and waste, secretion and excretion, reproduction, the preparation of sections, use of the microscope, re-agents and processes, micro-chemistry of plant products, detection of adulteration in foods and drugs. The work is illustrated with about 150 cuts.

Life in the Roman world of Nero and St. Paul, by T. G. TUCKER. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1910. 453 p.

This is a companion piece to the author's Life and Aims of Athens. He believes that the great hope of classical learning lies in the interest which the unlearned public may be brought to feel in ancient life and thought and so he cultivates a vivacity of style and a method of reality. He describes travel within the Roman Empire, a survey of the provinces, the Senate, knights, people, Nero, administration and taxes, describes Rome and its water supply, building material, town house, country homestead and furniture, social day, morning, afternoon and evening, dinner, life in the middle and lower classes, holidays, women, marriage, Roman matron and her dress, children and education, the army, religion, scientific knowledge, philosophy, art, burial and tombs.

Journeys through bookland. A new and original plan for reading applied to the world's best literature for children, by C. H. SYLVESTER. 10 vols. Thompson Pub. Co., Chicago.

This attractive series of books which leaves little to be desired in binding, typography, etc., is the result of earnest efforts to present to boys and girls the best literature in such a way that it will appeal to their imagination interest them and lead them to read for information, enjoyment and inspiration. It is reading outside of school hours that really focuses the taste of a young person and if he is left wholly to his own resources, nothing is more natural than that he should read merely for his present enjoyment and for the excitement that the short lived modern story furnishes so abundantly. The plan of the series is presented at length in the last volume under the title "Talks with parents." The writer does not pretend to have read these voluminous works, but a rather careful cursory inspection inclines him to believe that they constitute one of the best of the many attempts to present well chosen literature to the young.

Travels in history, by MARK TWAIN. Selected from the works of Mark Twain by C. N. Kendall. New York, Harper and Bros., 1910. 171 p.

Superintendent Kendall endeavors here to meet the criticism made that the teaching of literature in our school system is too academic, that the authors chosen are removed from the child's interest or are taught so as to stifle its desire for more extended reading. To counteract this tendency, we must select authors who interpret life with vitality and reality. While we should not over-emphasize nationality, our youth cannot appreciate the best that has been said and thought in the world unless they grasp the democratic spirit which is expressed by the best work of our own literary masters. In Mark Twain, we have the national spirit as seen with our own eyes. He is a master of commonplace and of humor. It would be interesting to see what children really make of such stories as The Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. We are inclined to think it takes the glamour and romance entirely off and that this kind of crass common sense carried through literature and history would rather rub the bloom off, especially as children have no great sense of true humor.

Child problems, by GEORGE B. MANGOLD. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1910. 381 p. (The Citizens Library.)

These problems are rapidly becoming prominent in the public mind and the author here gives his readers a general view of some of the chief of them and seeks to adapt it to the use of students engaged in college and university work as well as to the general reader. After a general introduction, the first chapter, on mortality treats of its various causes, its rates and different states, children's diseases, the milk problem and supplementary methods. The second chapter is devoted to recent aspects of educational reform, such as the playground movement, medical inspection of schools, training of backward children and the new education. The third, is devoted to child labor, its conditions, physiological aspects, its general effect and legislation. The fourth, treats of child delinquency, its causes, nature, the juvenile court, probation system, reformatory institutions and prevention. The fifth, is devoted to the dependent and neglected child, discussing the principles and methods of child saving, public and private and the various agencies devoted thereto. A selected bibliography of ten pages concludes the work. It is devoted entirely to problems in this country and makes no attempt to be comparative.

World corporation, by KING C. GILLETTE. Boston, The New England News Co., 1910. 240 p.

It is well known by corporationists that economy, stability and absence of friction are striking traits of large corporations. These will continue to form, absorb and grow and no power on earth can stop this process. The author wishes to form a world corporation of which he gives the articles of incorporation, its central office being located at Phœnix, Arizona. Its capital stock is divided into common shares of a par value of one dollar each and certificates of stock shall be issued in denominations all the way from one to 1,000,000 shares. It is not entirely clear precisely what the purpose and work of this corporation is to be, but it seeks to embody many of the best ideals of humanity and evidently is designed to transact its business in general in a way that shall save the present wastage of about 90 per cent. It must centralize the divided manufacturing industries of North America for one thing. It means the emancipation of women for another. Its central building is to be an immense affair of sky scrapers arranged in a circle and supporting a dome of a magnitude the world has not yet seen. It is to revolutionize agriculture, prevent adulterations of food, put politics on a business basis and insure everybody. It is to control and purify business and knowledge, give everybody sufficient but nobody excessive work. Arbitration is a matter of course. Education is

to be greatly advanced and everything is to work with automatic perfection.

The home training of children, by A. B. BARNARD. London, Pilgrim Press. 205 p.

The chief headings are fatherhood and motherhood, stages of child life, child nature, first beginnings of training, companions and friends, formation of character, will power and self control, goodness and naughtiness, the question of punishment, morality and religion, habits and manners, mental culture, home teaching or school, value of play, something to do, mother, times of illness, abnormal children, difficulties by the way, looking to the future. This is intended as a practical book, not for teachers but for parents and governesses.

Country cottages and homes, by R. A. BRIGGS. London, Allen, 1910. 133 p.

This is an interesting and copiously illustrated book with chapters on site, aspects and soil, cottages and small houses, moderate sized and larger houses, alterations and additions, gardens, gates, fences and accessories. The book is in excellent type, on good paper, and the illustrations are very attractive, although everything is quite distinctively English. For our own part we must say that more attractive books and houses of this class exist in this country.

Responsibility for crime; an investigation of the nature and causes of crime and a means of its prevention, by PHILIP A. PARSONS. Ph. D. Dissertation, Columbia Univ., 1909. 194 p.

The writer treats crime and the criminal, criminal classes, formula of crime, punishment, heredity and environment, the death penalty, the prison system, jury, justice and restitution, propagation, a remedy, education, progress, retrospect and prospect.

The book of honour; familiar talks with young men and boys, by CANON DAWSON. London, Pilgrim Press. 192 p.

The topics are What is honour? courage, chivalry, manners, self-command, fair play, truth and lies, religion, fashion, work, good boys, the way we learn, if we had known, the slayer of three, in a funk, number one, what to forget and not, for all you are worth.

Boy scouts of America. A handbook of woodcraft, scouting, and lifecraft, by ERNEST THOMPSON SETON, with which is incorporated by arrangement General Sir Robert Baden-Powell's Scouting for boys. New York, Doubleday, Page & Co., 1910. 192 p.

This handbook we believe to represent the very best of all the adult guided organizations for boys, but we confess we have never been able to understand the claims of Mr. Thompson Seton. He is doubtless the fittest man to be its patron in this country but can in no sense be called its father, for the merit here belongs essentially to Baden-Powell, who organized the movement in England without, so far as we know, any knowledge of Mr. Seton's work.

History of the education of the blind, by W. H. ILLINGWORTH. London, Low, Marston, 1910. 167 p.

This is a much desired book as there was really nothing good in English before. After a brief and we must say very inadequate section on the psychology of blindness, the writer gives the story of the beginnings of reading, Haüy, types, Braille, Edison-Bell, Foucaud, writing, typewriters, Dr. Moon, music notations, piano tuning, massage, handicrafts, arithmetic, earlier acts, libraries, magazines, literature, college, the obstacles to progress.

Elementary arithmetic, by De Forest A. Preston and Edward L. Stevens. New York, Macmillan, 1910. 243 p.

This is the first of a series that offers a complete course in arithmetic for elementary schools and is intended for use by pupils of the third to the fifth year and needs little preparatory preparation on the part of the teacher.

Principles of secondary education. A text-book. By Charles DeGarmo. Volume III, Ethical training. New York, Macmillan, 1910. 213 p.

"Something precious in education was lost when the Greek idea of the ethical goodness of wisdom became obscured by neglect. It is one of the principal purposes of this volume to bring into clearer light the moral functions of knowledge and to show how over the bridge of ethical interest youth may be led from understanding to wisdom and from wisdom to its correlative, goodness, and volitional efficiency." Then he proceeds to consider regulative principles, the adolescent in modern society, moral habits, new and old, some cardinal moral ideals, ethical interest as the bridge between knowledge and moral conduct, realizing the ethical value of high school studies, moral aspects of physical training, a general survey of ethical training abroad. This seems to us the best book in the series.

From boyhood to manhood, or Some aids to true success, by David Williamson. London, The Religious Tract Soc., 1910. 190 p.

This work gives various hints to boys starting in business upon such topics as lodgings, clothing, doing one's work well, changing employment, reading, the simple life, boyhood's ambitions realized, a true gentleman, keep your eyes open, keeping a diary, friendships, building a character, keeping on, debating and speaking, keeping accounts, acquired knowledge, the life of the soul. The work is a handbook for young boys who have left school and have found their first position on the lowest rungs of the industrial ladder.

Controversies over the imitation of Cicero as a model of style, and some phases of their influence in the schools of the Renaissance, by Ioza Scott. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1910. 145 p.

The author discusses first the influence of Cicero before 1450, then the controversies concerning him in Sicily, the Ciceronianism of Erasmus, his relations to Scaliger, and various phases of the controversy up to 1600, with a final chapter on the influence of Ciceronianism upon educational practice, together with a good bibliography. The author recognizes the immense significance of Cicero upon oratory and in the domain of pedagogy, holding, however, that it is an influence easy to overdo.

Ries. Easy German Stories. Edited by Ernest H. Biermann. New York, Cincinnati, Chicago, American Book Company. Price 35 cents.

In this choice selection of short imaginative tales taken from "Der Schnitter und andere Märchen," Mr. Biermann presents a little reader admirably suited to elementary work. Attractive in its quaint simplicity and abounding in expressions characteristically German, it lends itself easily and naturally to retranslation. For this purpose the exercises appended for practice, both oral and written, are varied and comprehensive. These, together with generous foot notes which insist upon the frequent review of important rules, furnish an edition both valuable and complete.

Mairet. La Petite Princesse, Edited by Edith Healy. New York Cincinnati, Chicago, American Book Company. Price 35 cents.

The same genuine appreciation of the ideals of childhood which has

inspired other writings of Mairet's lends a wholesome fascination to La Petite Princesse. While the narrative, similar in essential features to Little Lord Fauntleroy, makes a direct appeal to the juvenile reader, it further commends itself to the beginner by its simple, direct style, affording remarkable ease in translation. Much value can be derived from the exercises for practice in composition, to which considerable space is devoted, if the eye and ear are first carefully trained in the use of the text as a model. The questions following each chapter are excellent as an aid in the acquisition of the spoken language.

Teachers of elementary French will welcome this edition and find it most helpful and attractive in their classes.

Analytic geometry, by N. C. Riggs. New York, Macmillan, 1910. 194 p.

Bulletin mensuel de l'institut de Sociologie Solvay, Nos. 1-6 inclusive. Janvier-Juin, 1910. Documents divers relatifs à l'organisation de l'Institut.

The attainment of eternal youth; in seven lessons, by Harry Gaze. Chicago. Published by the author (1910). 87 p.

How to live forever; the science and practice, by Harry Gaze. Chicago, Stockham Publishing Co., n. d. 205 p.

Problems of your generation, by Daisy Dewey. New York, Arden Press, 1910. 104 p.

Public speaking for secondary schools. Second edition, by Robert I. Fulton and Thomas C. Trueblood. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1910. 250 p.

Physics, by Charles Riborg Mann and George Ransom Twiss. Revised edition. Chicago, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1905. 424 p.

Mentally deficient children; their treatment and training, by G. E. Shuttleworth and W. A. Potts. 3d ed. Philadelphia, Blakiston, 1910. 236 p.

The periods of English literature. Outlines of the history of English literature with reading and reference lists. By Louise Pound. The University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, Neb., 1910. 60 p.

A CIVIC INSTITUTE ON CHILD LIFE

For two successive years there has been held in Seattle, a May Institute for the study of the city, by the city and for the city. This last May the Institute confined itself entirely to the questions connected with Child Life in Seattle, but this more specialized field was found to cover all departments of city activity almost as thoroughly as the general Civic Institute held the year before. The Institute was arranged by very busy people, at very little expense, and accomplished several definite results in the correlation of various societies devoted to social work.

The first Institute, held in May, 1909, immediately preceding the Alaska Yukon Pacific Exposition, was based on an appeal to the residents of Seattle to "Know Their City" before they began showing it to strangers. It was a very successful three weeks congress, and was the beginning of a "Know Your City" Movement in the Northwest, resulting in similar Institutes in Portland, Walla Walla and Spokane, and in the repetition, a year later, of an institute in Seattle, devoted to the particular question of Child Life.

This Institute was carried on through a committee of eight, appointed at the first "Know Your City" Institute. The Y. M. C. A. Building gave its auditorium, the speakers gave their services. The only expense was for printing a sufficient number of programmes to distribute in large quantities throughout the city, and this expense was met by voluntary sustaining memberships of $1.00 each, which were solicited only by means of an announcement on the programme that such memberships were desired and might be sent to Dr. Sydney Strong, Chairman of the Committee. As there was practically no financial outlay, the success of the Institute had to be assured through such publicity as the newspapers would give, and this was secured by the simple expedient of keeping close to matters of immediate interest in the life of the city, and by arranging the programme to include officials who were actually dealing with public affairs, and whose opinions and actions had news value. This plan presents other advantages than that of mere publicity. It makes an institute immediately practical, and an actual force in the city's life.

Dr. Hastings H. Hart, Director of the Department of Child-Helping of the Russell Sage Foundation, was secured for the opening meeting, as he happened to be in the west at the time. Otherwise the speakers were all Seattle men, actively engaged in work among children. The sessions lasted for ten days, and covered such general subjects as Child Labor. Education, Child Play, Child Health, Remedial Agencies, Destructive Agencies, to each of which topics a session was given. The actual subjects were short and specific, such as Feeding of School Children, Girls' Homes, Child-Placing Institutions, Story-Telling at Schools and Playgrounds. In nearly every case the speaker was limited to ten minutes, and was asked to confine himself to the brief statement of what was actually being done in Seattle, and of the immediate next steps proposed by his department or organization. Ample time was allowed for questions or discussions, with a two minute time limit.

This Institute on Child Life was marked, as is the entire "Know Your City" Movement, by strict adherence to two principles. These have insured its success. It aims, first, at spreading among the general public knowledge, not merely of the evils in the city, with which too many of our

surveys have too largely dealt, but also, and primarily, of the resources available to counteract those evils. In doing this, it does not investigate from without, thus arousing antagonism among the citizens themselves, but invites open discussion on the part of city officials and heads of organizations, acting on the principle that the best way to obtain good work from a city official, is to let him discuss with a sympathetic audience the good work he is already doing, rather than to hurl indiscriminate criticism at him from the outside. In fact, a large part of the good effect of these Institutes have been in their direct effect on the city officials themselves, men who, like other men, are rather well-intentioned, but who receive as a rule no suggestions of any kind after they come into office, except through the selfish demands of various private interests. If the good citizens and the officials can occasionally confer together, the effect is sure to be good for both parties, whether the goodness induced or encouraged in the official be from genuine interest or merely from motives of policy. The potent effect of suggestion has long been recognized in psychology, but it has been too little used by social workers in their treatment of the men through whom, after all, efficient or inefficient work for the city must come. Its practical application is perhaps one of the main contributions of the "Know Your City" Movement. The second meeting of the Institute was held in May, 1910, and proved successful beyond expectation. The attendance at the eleven sessions averaged 200. Two notes were struck throughout the Institute: first that the home is the chief reliance for training good citizens, and second, that environment is of chief importance in the life of the child. The child that is homeless must be provided with a home rather than placed in an institution. "The committee believes that the time is now ripe for the organization in the near future of a Children's Bureau in Seattle that shall be composed entirely of volunteer workers, from all classes and nationalities, whose one object shall be the proper turning of the public mind towards the interests of the conservation of child life."

ANNA LOUISE STRONG.

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